

<http://researchcommons.waikato.ac.nz/>

Research Commons at the University of Waikato

Copyright Statement:

The digital copy of this thesis is protected by the Copyright Act 1994 (New Zealand).

The thesis may be consulted by you, provided you comply with the provisions of the Act and the following conditions of use:

- Any use you make of these documents or images must be for research or private study purposes only, and you may not make them available to any other person.
- Authors control the copyright of their thesis. You will recognise the author's right to be identified as the author of the thesis, and due acknowledgement will be made to the author where appropriate.
- You will obtain the author's permission before publishing any material from the thesis.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF A MIDDLE SCHOOL

**A thesis
submitted in fulfilment
of the requirement for the degree**

of

Doctor of Philosophy

at

The University of Waikato

by Richard S. Ward

2001

**The University of Waikato
Hamilton
New Zealand**

ABSTRACT

One of the effects of the 1989 Education Act in New Zealand was to allow schools to broaden their client base. This had the most significant impact in the area of schooling where there was the greatest possibility for change, particularly for the classes either side of the transition between primary and secondary schooling; the middle years. Under the Act, primary schools had the option of recapitulating to retain their older pupils. Secondary schools were now able to extend downwards and offer a junior high school structure. So, the greatest potential for school restructuring was associated with the intermediate schools. Traditionally, intermediate schools had provided a two-year transition at Years 7 and 8 between primary and secondary education. The 1989 Education Act allowed them to extend this to include Years 9 and 10 and the development of three or four-year middle schools.

In their traditional role of providing a transitional stage between primary and secondary education, the intermediate schools were characterised by aspects of both institutions. While programmes were largely home-room based and under the care of one teacher, some subject specialisation was also characteristic of intermediate schools. That this structure could be extended into the lower secondary classes offered a new perspective on the role of middle schooling.

It was the extension of a Year 7 and 8 intermediate school into a four-year middle school and thereby encroaching on the traditional preserve of secondary schools, that became the focus of this study. It monitored the expansion of a two-year school as Years 9 and 10 classes were added and the transition of the first Year 10 class into Year 11 at secondary schools.

From this focus, the study hypothesised three main concerns relating to change: that the development of a two-year institution into a four year one would offer significant challenges to both the school organisation and the delivery of the curriculum, whether the students who chose to stay at the Middle School viewed the experience as worthwhile and that a current theory on institutional change would be useful in observing and analysing the data.

The methodology for the study was largely qualitative. It was based on interviews with the Years 9 and 10 pupils, their teachers and parents and the school principal. The interviews covered the time in which the Middle School expanded to accommodate the additional two years, 1995 and 1996, and also followed the pupils into the first term of their secondary schools in 1997. During the transition to secondary schools, the interview data was supported with observations and pre-transition and post-transition surveys, using Q-Sorts and Picture Interpretation methods. In addition, parents' views were sought on their children's experiences at the Middle School and their transition to secondary schools.

The research confirmed that a Year 7 to 10 school offered a viable alternative for the pupils in this study to the traditional path of transition from intermediate school to secondary school at the end of Year 8. It suggested that a school organisation, based on home-room teaching and interdisciplinary staffing arrangements, provided a useful basis for the social and educational development of preadolescents, although quite what would comprise a suitable balance between generalist and specialist teaching proved challenging. Nevertheless, curriculum delivery for Years 7 to 10 was facilitated by a flexible form of organisation. Parents of the Year 9 and 10 pupils endorsed the practices of the Middle School and confirmed that delaying transition to secondary schools was worthwhile.

The development of the Middle School from a two-year to a four-year institution was viewed from a Perspectives theory of change. The theory was found to present a useful focus for viewing school change, but some modifications to it are offered.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

So many people and events made this study possible. I am pleased that the idea of Form 1 to 4 schools emerged in this country and that a research team at the School of Education, University of Waikato was able to undertake an initial case study at the Middle School. I am grateful that at the close of the study, the team suggested that the research into the Middle School be continued and that I was able to undertake it. The support of the original research team has always been available.

The Middle School and its community continued to be an excellent venue for research. The principal and teachers of the first Year 9 and 10 classes were always welcoming. I am grateful that their support for the idea of middle schooling allowed frank discussion of its possibilities and easy access to their classrooms and team discussions. This carried over to the whole staff, who were always affable and supportive of the research. I thoroughly enjoyed being an ex-officio staff member at the Middle School and the comradie of its staffroom.

I am grateful to the parents at the Middle School who also readily offered opinions and who welcomed me into their homes. The parents of case study pupils had extra demands placed on them and it was their willingness that allowed the intimacy of the case studies.

Professor Noeline Alcorn and the Leave Committee arranged special leave for this study to be completed. As, in hindsight, I'm not sure that the study would have been completed without the leave, I'm very grateful for it. As chair of the Arts and Language department, Gail Cawkwell was always supportive of this study. Debbie Morrow, the department secretary provided her usual impeccable organising and presentation support.

As part of both study leave and special leave opportunities, I was able to visit Leicester University where a study on pupil transition was in progress. The research team were most helpful and supportive. I am grateful to the members of the team for their ideas on research methodology and for their support for this study.

I suspect that the supervisors of this study gave a new meaning to patience. Dr Ken Carr and Dr Jane Strachan were consistently caring and positive and always offered me clear guidance. I have learned a great deal about research, tolerance and professional support from them.

I will always be grateful that my parents and my two children thought that I could complete this thesis.

Richard Ward

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
The Research Questions.	4
The Focus and Structure of the Study.	5
CHAPTER 2: THE DEVELOPMENT OF MIDDLE SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES AND THE UNITED KINGDOM	
Introduction	7
Background.....	7
Definitions and Origins of Middle Schools.....	8
The Development of Middle Schools in the United States.	10
Background.....	10
Educational Provisions for a Particular Stage of Development.	12
Middle Schools as Part of a Response to Social Change... ..	14
Recent developments	16
The Development of Middle Schools in the United Kingdom	
Background.....	19
Further Developments.....	24
Common Themes Associated with Middle School Education	
Class Spans Encompassed by Middle Schools.....	25

Internal School Organisation for Effective Curriculum Delivery	27
Support for Interdisciplinary Teaching Teams.....	29
Transition: Coping with Change.....	31
Peer Effects.	35
Summary.....	39

CHAPTER 3: THE DEVELOPMENT OF MIDDLE SCHOOLING IN NEW ZEALAND

Introduction.....	41
Background.....	41
Conflict of Aims	43
The Relationship between Junior High Schools, Primary and Secondary Schools	45
The Change to Two-year Intermediate Schools.....	46
Union Issues and Further Reviews.....	47
Curriculum Delivery.	54
Time for an Alternative?.....	58
Middle Schooling in the 1990s; Education and the 'New Right'	60
Persistent Issues Associated with Middle Schooling.....	64.
Summary.....	66

CHAPTER 4: THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Introduction.....	68
Definitions and Classifications of Change Theories.....	68
School Improvement Theories of Change.....	71
School Improvement from a Cultural Perspective.....	72

School Improvement Theories from a Management Perspective	73
Systemic Theories of Change	75
Perspectives Theories of Change..	80
House's Perspectives Theory of Change.....	80
The Technological Perspective of Change.....	81
The Political Perspective of Change	82
The Cultural Perspective of Change	83
The Perspectives Theory and Educational Change.....	85
The Relevance of the Perspectives Theory for this Study.....	90
Why not use a Systemic theory to explain change?.....	90
Why not use a School Improvement theory of change?.....	91
Why adopt House's Perspectives theory?.....	91
Conclusion.....	92

CHAPTER 5: THE RESEARCH DESIGN

Introduction	94
Qualitative and Quantitative Research; parameters of two paradigms	95
Qualitative Research	
The Paradigm.....	96
Objectivity	96
Implications for reliability and validity.....	99
Quantitative research	
The paradigm.....	101
Objectivity	101
Implications for reliability and validity.....	102

Ethical Considerations.....	105
The Methods Used to Collect Data	
Introduction.....	107
The Interview as a Method of Data Gathering	108
The use of interviews in this study	111
The interview schedule.....	112
The interpretation of interview data in this study	115
Observation as a Research Method.....	117
The use of Observation in this Study	118
The Complementary Roles of Observations and Interviews	120
Q-Methodology as a Research Approach.....	121
The Application of Q-methodology	122
The Application of Q-Sort as an Example of Q-methodology	123
The Design of the Q-Sort Activity	124
Q-Sorting as a Method of Triangulation	128
Picture Interpretation as a Semi-projective Technique	128
Recent Applications of Picture Interpretation Surveys.....	131
The Application of the Picture Interpretation Surveys.	133
Analysis of Data from the Picture Interpretation Survey	134
Possible Shortcomings of the Application in this Study.....	136
The Use of Case Studies in Research.....	137
The Application of the Case Study Approach in this Study.....	139
Triangulation through the use of Multiple Methodologies.	141
Summary	143

CHAPTER 6: THE FINDINGS

Overview	146
School Organisation	146
Initial Changes in the School Organisation	146
Emergent Organisational Issues	147
Pupils' Views on Organisation	150
Parents' Views on School Organisation.....	152
The Decision-making Processes... ..	154
Ongoing Challenges.....	156
Curriculum Delivery	157
The Underlying Philosophy.....	157
Developing a Curriculum; the principles	159
Developing a Curriculum: the Roles of Integration and Specialism	161
Curriculum Delivery; the Advantages	
The teachers' flexibility of style	164
What the pupils valued in the curriculum.	165
Transfer pupils' views on curriculum delivery.....	168
The advantages of the Options programme.....	170
Parents' views on the advantages of the curriculum offered.....	171
Curriculum Delivery: the Difficulties	
Teachers' views on curriculum specialism.	172
Pupils' views on the curriculum.	173
Specialism and pupils' views on secondary teachers.	175
Curriculum Delivery; the Tensions	
The role of specialism.	177

The influence of a secondary school model of curriculum delivery.....	180
Teaching in the Options programme.....	182
The Social Perspective.	
The Supportive Classroom Environment.....	184
The teacher.	184
The pupils' social interaction.	186
Leadership opportunities.....	188
A secure environment.	190
Summary.	193

CHAPTER 7: TRANSITION TO SECONDARY SCHOOL

Introduction.....	196
The Pupils' Social Adjustment.	196
Settling in.	198
Adjusting to a New Organisation.....	199
Preconceptions about Transition to Secondary School.....	199
Settling in.	200
Coping with Schoolwork.....	201
Preparation to Cope at Secondary School.....	201
Settling in.	203
Reflecting on the new environment.	204\
Imagined Issues That Did Not Occur.....	207
Summary.....	209

CHAPTER 8: THREE CASE STUDIES

Introduction	211
Selection	211
Case Study 1: Matthew	
Background.....	212
Middle School.....	214
Secondary School.....	216
Summary	218
Case Study 2: William	
Background.....	219
Middle School.....	219
Secondary School.....	221
Summary	224
Case Study 3: Tessa	
Background.....	225
Middle School.....	225
Secondary School.....	227
Summary	231
Summary of the Case Studies.....	232

CHAPTER 9: DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

Introduction	233
Development of the Middle School	233

The Significance of the Informal Culture.....	233
Curriculum Delivery for the Years 9 and 10 Classes	234
The Role of Specialism and the Organisation of Time	235
The Role of Specialism and Subject Knowledge.....	236
The Role of Specialism in an Integrated Programme..	238
The Availability of Resources in an Expanding Institution.	239
Teachers' Role Perceptions	240
Curriculum Development and Extension.	241
Ownership of Change.....	243
Rethinking Organisational Patterns.	244
Identity and Accountability	245
Implications for the Preferred Size of a School.....	246
Transition to Secondary School	
An Alternative Track	247
Stages in the Transition Process	248
Curriculum Continuity	249
Changes in Pupils' Perceptions of their School Progress.	250
Parents' Views of the Differences Between the Learning	
and Social Environments of Two Kinds of Schools.	251
Moderating Factors.	253
A Revision of the Perspectives Theory of Change, as a Result of this Study	254
The Technological Lens	254
The Political Perspective	258
The Cultural Perspective	259
Summary.....	262

CHAPTER TEN:CONCLUSIONS

Introduction.	263
Implications for curriculum delivery.	263
Implications for transition.	264
Implications for a theory of observing change	265
Implications for research methodology.....	266
Implications for further research.....	266
Endpiece.	269

FIGURES

Figure 1. Q-Sort Response Matrix.	123
----------------------------------------	-----

TABLES

TABLE 1 Number of Intermediate Schools in New Zealand.	52
TABLE 2 Number of Pupils Enrolled in Intermediate Schools in New Zealand	53

REFERENCES.....	271
-----------------	-----

APPENDICES

Appendix 1	
The Terminology Historically Applied to Different Classes	302
Appendix 2	
Extract from the Education Act, 1989, including Section 153	303
Appendix 3	
Explanation of Education Development Initiatives	304
Appendix 4	
Schools in New Zealand that accommodate Years 7 to 10 pupils.....	305
Appendix 5	
Schedule of interviews with pupils	307
Appendix 6	
Interview questions for pupils	308
Appendix 7	
Questions for the Middle School principal.....	310
Appendix 8	
Questions for Year 9 and 10 teachers at the Middle School....	311
Appendix 9	
Questions for Year 7 and 8 Teachers at the Middle School.....	312
Appendix 10	
Questions for Parents.....	313
Appendix 11	
QSR*NUDIST analysis: Node distribution.....	314
Appendix 12	
Instructions for the Administration of Q-Sort items	318
Appendix 13	
Randomised Q-Sort items.....	319
Appendices 14	
Example from the Picture Interpretation survey used in the Transfer Project, 1995- 1997	
14.1 Teacher in Maths class	320
14.2 Pupils entering a new school.....	321

Appendices 15

Examples of pictures used in the Picture Interpretation Survey:

15.1 Pupil entering school	322
15.2 Pupil at school office	323
15.3 Pupil entering locker room	324
15.4 Teacher talking with pupils in a group	325

Appendix 16. Copy of Options Selection Sheet offered to Year 9 Pupils.	326
-----------------------------------------------------------------------------	-----

Appendix 17 Copy of Newsletter to Parents. Whole School Options Programme.	327
---------------------------------------------------------------------------------	-----

Appendix 18 Analysis of Results from Pre-Transfer Q-Sort Survey.....	329
----------------------------------------------------------------------	-----

Appendix 19. Transfer group.....	330
----------------------------------	-----

Appendix 20 Picture Interpretation Suiurvey. Analysis of Verbal Moves: Pre-Transfer.	331
--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	-----

Appendices 21. Analysis of Data from Picture Interpretation survey

21.1 Pre-Transfer Perceptions, Year 10, Positive.	332
21.2 Pre-Transfer Perceptions, Year 10, Neutral.....	333
21.3 Pre-transfer Perceptions, Year 10, Adverse.....	334

Appendices 22. Analysis of Data from Picture Interpretation Survey.

22.1 Post-transfer, Year 11, Positive.....	335
22.2 Post-transfer, Year 11, Neutral.	336
22.3 Post-transfer, Year 11, Adverse.	337

Appendix 23. Chi-Square Analysis of Post-transfer 'Schoolwork Satisfaction' category, Q-Sort.	338
-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	-----

Appendix 24 Analysis of Q-Sort Data from Post-transfer Survey.	339
---------------------------------------------------------------------	-----

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This thesis had its beginnings in the researcher's interest in change and the effects on school learners. There were two sources of this interest. The first source stemmed from two New Zealand publications in the late 1980s and early 1990s, concerning the effects of transition on pupils' learning and social behaviour. One, *Crossing the Divide* (McGee, 1987), acknowledged the significance of the organisational aspects of transition that made the transfer into a larger institution easier for the pupils. While its focus did not include any significant enquiry into the perceptions of those involved (pupils, teachers, parents), because it had been commissioned by the Ministry of Education, this indicated an awareness of the Ministry's interest in this area.

A second publication, from the New Zealand Education Review Office, *Form 1 to 4: Issues for Students* (1994), identified four major areas of concern in the provision of education across the ten or eleven to fifteen year age span. These were, curriculum continuity, assessment, transition and discipline. While this publication interested the writer insofar as it highlighted the significance of change in the middle years of schooling, the report appeared to have minimal impact on those immediately concerned with middle years education.

As far as the issue of transition was concerned, overseas research had given it greater significance. Some studies (these are reviewed in greater detail in Chapter Two) suggested that, for most pupils, transition to a larger school with different organisational features might leave them uneasy about their ability to fit into their new environment. Most research suggested that, for the majority of pupils, this feeling of disorientation was largely temporary and sooner or later they adjusted. For example, The Power and Cotterell Survey (1981) of schools near Brisbane, Australia, suggested that 70% of the pupils felt they were part of their new school after two weeks. For some pupils, the change was more traumatic and had lasting effects. The Power and Cotterell study

reported that after three months, 18% of the pupils felt nervous about their secondary school. Other research showed that, prior to transfer, over two-thirds of the pupils expressed anxiety about the change (Spelman, 1979), and 10 per cent remained totally unreconciled to the move away from the primary school (Nisbet & Entwistle, 1969; Youngman & Lunzer, 1977).

For most children, the move from the apparently more nurturing atmosphere of a primary school to the more organisation-driven climate of a larger secondary school was a cause of some anxiety (Nisbet & Entwistle, 1969). The duration of this anxiety was to become an interesting issue in the present study and is discussed in Chapters Six, Seven, Eight and Nine. But, for those who found transition a challenging experience, their anxiety stemmed from the very nature of the two institutions they were transferring between (Davison, 1996; Pollard, 1984). Primary schools, for example, usually offered a comparatively more nurturing experience, a continuation of what had been experienced since the pupils entered school. They generally included a largely child-centred approach to learning in a home-room environment. This contrasted with the more specialised, subject-centred approach, characteristic of secondary schools (Davison, 1996). It was this perceived dichotomy, along with the attendant organisational features, that was the basis for the challenges associated with transition. This study identified the main educational and social issues associated with the two different environments. These are the focus of Chapter Seven.

The second significant source of interest for the writer, associated with change, stemmed from research undertaken by a team from the University of Waikato, New Zealand (Strachan, McGee, Oliver, Ramsay, Ward, & Winstone, 1995). As a result of the Ministry of Education giving permission in 1994 for three intermediate schools to recapitate (that is, to add classes to their traditional two-year structure), the New Zealand Post Primary Teachers Association (NZPPTA) decided to investigate the implications of setting up a middle school. The research, jointly funded by the

University of Waikato and the NZPPTA, offered eleven conclusions and implications for the establishment of a middle school. The conclusions were prefaced with a statement that had clear implications for the focus of the present study:

However, at this point it is important to note that the researchers see this study as the base-line of what needs to be a three-year study. That is, for the study to be more fully useful, the 1995 third form middle school students need to be tracked into their fourth form (1996) and fifth form (1997) years. This will produce a clearer picture of the educational and social implications for these students.

(Strachan, McGee, Oliver, Ramsay, Ward & Winstone, 1995, p. 55)

The essential elements of the present study were identified. It would encompass the educational implications (including curriculum delivery), the social implications (including relationships between pupils and between pupils and teachers) and the effects of transition to a larger institution. The research questions derived from these focal points are listed at the end of this chapter.

The present study focussed on the expansion of an institution from two to four years; the development of a Year 7 to 10 middle school. Education for this age group required clear educational and social planning. The educational aspects would eventually include the design of a Year 7 to 10 curriculum and an organisation in which to deliver it. The additional numbers of pupils would have significant challenges for a school which was required by the Ministry of Education to remain 'fiscally neutral' in terms of resourcing and access to resources, during the first two years of development. The emergence of senior pupils in leadership roles in the school may offer social opportunities that might not be otherwise afforded their Year 9 and 10 counterparts in a secondary school. Additionally, the question always remained concerning whether pupils from an essentially home-room based approach to learning, would adjust to transferring to secondary education for Year 11. This was based on the assumption that

the more subject-centred approach to organisation and teaching, that was typical of many Year 11 programmes at secondary schools, would provide a contrasting environment to that of a middle school.

The purposes for the study were centred in the middle school setting. They would continue and expand the original University of Waikato study (Strachan et al., 1995) and investigate the translation of a two-year intermediate school into a four-year middle school. They would have to address whether delaying transition to secondary school was seen as being socially and educationally worthwhile. They would have to review a theory of change in the light of an expanding culture of a middle school.

The Research Questions

The research questions reflected these purposes and included:

- What changes occurred in the formal and informal cultures in a middle school during the movement from a two-year to a four-year institution?
- How did pupils from the middle school cope with transition to a secondary school?
- What were parents' views on the social and educational differences of children who transferred to secondary school at Year 9 and Year 11?
- To what extent were the changes that occurred explainable by theories of change?

The Focus and Structure of the Study

Chapter Two offers a review of the literature on middle schooling, particularly in those countries where their development has influenced the provision of schooling for the middle years on the New Zealand scene; the United States and the United Kingdom.

Chapter Three focuses on the development of middle schools in New Zealand. It traces the establishment of junior high and eventually, intermediate schools in New Zealand. An explanation is offered of how changes in government education policy and the politics of the 'New Right' facilitated the development of four year middle schools.

Chapter Four includes the theoretical considerations. In this chapter change is viewed from its theoretical underpinnings and three categories of change theory are critically examined in terms of their usefulness for describing change in a school. A Perspectives theory of change is adopted for use in this study.

Chapter Five presents the research design. After listing the research questions, there is a review of the literature on qualitative and quantitative research methodologies. In this study, data collecting was largely qualitative, and based on interviews and observations. Three case studies were undertaken. In addition, the investigation into transition to secondary schools included Q-Sort and Picture Interpretation surveys.

Chapters Six and Seven present the findings from the study. The first is divided into the three main areas into which the data was grouped; school organisation, curriculum delivery and social relations. Chapter Seven focuses on the Transfer Groups' transition to secondary schools. The Transfer Group is the name given in this study to the first group of Year 10 pupils from the Middle School that moved into four secondary schools.

Three case studies are detailed in Chapter Eight. They focus on two boys and a girl and offer detailed descriptions of their perceptions of their social and scholastic life at the Middle School and their transition to secondary schools.

Chapter Nine discusses the findings and offers a range of conclusions from the

study and the implications of these for curriculum delivery, transition and change theory.

Chapter Ten details what this study has added to knowledge about middle schooling and offers suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 2

THE DEVELOPMENT OF MIDDLE SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES AND THE UNITED KINGDOM

Introduction

The first part of this chapter offers a review of the development of the middle school in the United States (US) and the United Kingdom (UK). These two countries were most influential in the development of middle schooling in New Zealand.

In the second part, themes that are common to the development of middle schooling in the UK and the US are discussed, particularly, the age and grade spans accommodated, school internal organisation, including the role of interdisciplinary teams in curriculum delivery, transition into secondary school and peer effects. The last four themes are recurrent throughout this thesis and are further explored in the next chapter, with relation to the New Zealand setting.

Background

It is unlikely that recent commentators on education would have the comfortable conviction that the authors of the Hadow Report (Board of Education, 1926) had when, in order to justify a break in education for pupils at about 11 years, they stated:

There is a tide which begins to rise in the veins of youth at the age of eleven or twelve. It is called by the name of adolescence. If that tide can be taken at the flood, and a new voyage begun in the strength and along the flow of its current, we think that it will 'move on to fortune.' We therefore propose that all children should be transferred, at the age of eleven or twelve, from the junior or primary

school either to the schools of the type now called secondary, or to schools (whether selective or non-selective) of the type which is now called central, or to senior and separate departments of existing elementary schools.

(Board of Education, 1926, p. xix)

That there should be a break between primary and secondary school has received significant agreement amongst educators and philosophers since Greek and Roman times. Quite what the changeover should entail has enjoyed less agreement, probably because over time it has been required to fulfil a range of functions. For some, the transition has presented a chance to offer separate programmes for the more academically inclined and for those who planned to finish their schooling earlier. For others, the changeover has allowed the development of a comprehensive curriculum, closely linked to secondary programmes and lasting up to four years. More recently, middle schools have focussed on educational provisions that are more suited to the preadolescent age group. The variety of ways in which adolescent education has been accommodated has had to confront several variables; for example, age of transfer, length of schooling, organisation of schools and the nature of the curriculum. Many of these have concerned educators for a long time.

Definitions and Origins of Middle Schools

Middle schooling focuses on the educational needs of early adolescence; a period that Santrock (1996) described as a transition from childhood to adulthood during which individuals, as part of developing an identity, “explore alternatives and experiment with choices” (p. 199). Stewart and Nolan (1992) labelled the stage ‘emerging adolescence’ in order to identify it as a particular developmental stage. Kerr (1996) referred to preadolescence as being “a unique stage of development” with “distinctive

developmental needs” (p. 15). The stage was defined as beginning at puberty and marking the start of a growth period in which there was considerable physical and psychological change (Clute, 1966; Griffiths, 1992) and which was almost as rapid and as dramatic in its effects as that of infancy (Clark & Clark, 1993; Kellough & Kellough, 1999; Manning & Allan, 1987). This stage was usually found within the 10 to 14 age group but occasionally extended beyond that (Kerr, 1996; Konopka, 1980).

Schools designed to accommodate this group originated in the early nineteenth century in Europe, with the establishment of junior high schools. Along with the movement from an agrarian-based economy to an industrial-based society there emerged a need for more skilled artisans (Curtis & Boulton, 1960). Gradually, the apprenticeship system which traditionally focussed on the skills for learning a particular trade expanded to include some tuition in more general education (Binder, 1970; Ulich, 1962). Eventually, the responsibility of catering for the needs of this group was adopted by elementary schools who added finishing courses to their base programmes. At the same time, in the US, secondary schools added junior high school departments to their structures in order to add a transition stage in preparation for the academic demands of their programmes. The difference between junior high schools and middle schools was that the former was the junior section of a high school and integral to its organisation. Middle schools developed as stand-alone, autonomous institutions, possibly contributing to more than one high school.

It was not until the 1950s and 1960s that middle schools emerged in the US, and to a lesser extent in the UK, as the organisation best suited to meet the educational needs of a particular stage of development. Most of the descriptive literature on middle schooling tends to focus on organisational and philosophical aspects of middle schools. The former includes the ages and classes encompassed and how schools are organised.

The latter includes the approaches and programmes of study. As this review will illustrate, many themes within these focuses have been recurrent and persist to the present day.

The Development of Middle Schools in the United States

Background

The establishment of middle schools in the US was in part due to the perceived shortcomings of the junior high school that existed at that time. The post-World War II era witnessed not only a surge in the number of children at school, but also the emergence of more flexible social values. Both contributed to a need for a different organisational pattern in schooling.

Some researchers regarded the inadequacies of the junior high school as largely being attributable to the “preparation for preparation” syndrome (George, Stevenson, Thomason & Beane, 1992, p. 46) or to the way in which some organisations copied or imitated others. In junior high schools this took the form of imitating the characteristics and components of a high school, such as having teachers organised into academic departments, subject specialisation and grouping patterns based on achievement. Although it is arguable that this is characteristic of some current middle school structures, it was in part the rigid organisation of the early junior high schools that found them wanting. For example, by the 1960s it had become evident that as the structure of modern US society became more complex, more flexible and more pluralistic, the junior high school did not fit the role for which it was then needed (Johnson, 1966). In 1961 the Association for Supervision and Curricula Development in the US published *The Junior High School We Need*. In it the authors pointed out that the contemporary junior high school was a hybrid institution, a school with an identity

crisis as severe as the identity crisis endured by many of the pupils within it (Arnold, 1982; Simmons, Blyth, Van Clear & Bush, 1979). While the seventh and eighth grades (Years 6 and 7 in New Zealand) retained some features of the elementary school, the ninth grade was influenced most strongly by the high school. The report described the ideal junior high school in terms that were very different from the reality. It identified the best junior high schools as being characterised by; moderate size, blocks of instruction time, flexible scheduling, teachers prepared for and devoted to teaching young adolescents, and modern instructional techniques (George & Oldaker, 1985, 1988; George, Stevenson, Thomason & Beane, 1992). The report also appeared at a time when there was a growing awareness that the unique needs of preadolescent students were not being adequately accommodated by programmes offered in junior high schools or secondary schools. As Thwaites (1992) stated:

A special programme is needed for the 10-14 year old child going through the unique “transescent” period in his (sic) growth and development... The widest range of differences in terms of physical, social, and intellectual growth is found in middle school youngsters. Such a wide range of difference calls for an individualised programme that is lacking in most junior high schools. (p. 2)

Some researchers such as Arnold (1982), Hoffman (1979), and McEwin (1981) described the problems of educating early adolescents, particularly in terms of traditional educational approaches. Hoffman (1979), for example, offered this indictment of what he saw as patterns typical of secondary education:

... the middle school programme should be so fashioned to avoid the following self-destructive characteristics of the secondary school: fragmented rosters, large, unmanageable lunch-room situations; inordinate preoccupation with remediation; tracking (ability grouping); focus on subject rather than student; bells and changes of classes; “floating” teachers; detention rooms, and study halls. (pp. 24-25)

According to Hoffman (1979), the junior high school had not kept pace with the changing social and educational needs of emerging adolescents. Additionally, some of the claims made in support of the schools were not credible, particularly those related to implementing curriculum reforms and catering for individual differences.

Educational Provisions for a Particular Stage of Development

During the 1970s there was reasonable consensus of opinion among psychologists and educationalists that special provision should be made for children at the preadolescent stage of their development. For example, Piaget (1970) suggested that at this age children’s thought processes developed from a ‘concrete operational’ stage to the stage of ‘formal operations’, where reliance on manipulating actual objects in order to compute, developed into an ability to think in the abstract. Dienes (1966) suggested a similar transition from the ‘constructive mode’ to the ‘analytic mode’. Hargreaves (1986) described emerging adolescents as being in a ‘zone of transition’. Whitehead (1972) saw this stage as one in which the ‘age of romance’ in children became replaced by an ‘age of precision’. Lounsbury (1982) suggested that preadolescence was a unique stage, one that could be identified by certain core needs. All recognised that children in this age group had need of a particular approach to their education because of the particular attributes of the age group. An example of child development research into

the needs of emerging adolescents was that of Lipsitz (1984) who identified the core needs commonly experienced by children as they pass through this stage. These included, a sense of competence and achievement, self exploration and definition, supportive social interaction with peer and adults, meaningful participation in school and community, routine, limits and structure, and a diversity of experience. These core needs are remarkably similar to the “seven key developmental needs” identified by Scales (1991, p. 22). He also identified the significance of positive social interaction with adults and peers, structure and clear limits to physical activity and meaningful participation in families and school communities. To these were added, creative expression, competence and achievement, and opportunities for self-definition. Similar ‘core developmental needs’ were identified by Lipsitz, Mizell, Jackson and Austin (1997).

Other researchers such as De Charms (1976), Stevenson (1992) and Wiles and Bondi (1993) found that acknowledgment of these requirements had important educational and social implications. Both suggested that processes such as shifting the locus of control of learning from teacher to pupils and the active involvement of pupils in their learning were likely to produce more educationally effective programmes than those found in more traditional schools. The social implications also included pupils being involved in decision making about social and organisational groupings and the flexibility of these. Other researchers (Griffiths, 1992; Hargreaves, 1986; Midgley & Edelin, 1998) indicated that the changes which occur during emerging adolescence had the potential for long-lasting effects on self-concept, social adjustment and the kind of person the emerging adolescent finally becomes. Wigfield and Eccles (1994), for example, suggested that failure of school settings to meet the developmental needs of early adolescents could cause a decline in their beliefs, values and self-esteem. They

suggested that the traditional, large, less personable, junior high schools were no longer appropriate educational and social settings for early adolescents. Other researchers indicated that bi-modal school systems that were organised on a primary-secondary division did not cater for the diversity of educational needs for pupils in different developmental stages (Eyers, 1992; Wiles & Bondi, 1993).

The recognition that the particular educational and social needs of the emerging adolescent were best accommodated in special schools with particular programmes and that the educational needs of the preadolescent group were not being met by the traditional programmes of the junior parts of secondary schools, was common to educational thinking of western countries during the 1960s and beyond. The US seems to have given this greater recognition than did the UK. Epstein (1987) suggested that in response to a diversity of educational circumstances since the 1950s, middle schooling emerged in the US as the largest and most comprehensive effort to restructure public education since the establishment of schools in that country.

Middle Schools as Part of a Response to Social Change

It could also be suggested that the establishment of middle schools in the US may have been as much attributable to experimentation and innovation and response to the social conditions of the times as it was to the provision of their students' special needs (Lounsbury, 1982; McEwin, 1983). The concept of middle schooling in the US was also partly the product of over enrolment and desegregation of the late 1960s and 1970s (Alexander, Williams, Compton, Hines & Prescott, 1968). As middle schools grew in number and distribution, in one sense their very existence became the rationale for their existence. In the US, post-war development saw a rise in popularity of the middle school from a few hundred to well over 5000 by 1960 (National Middle Schools

association, 1995). The middle school movement was also part of an era of optimism, of lateral thinking and the emergence of education as a science. Educators such as William Alexander, John Lounsbury and Gordon Vars offered leadership in the development of middle schooling. By the late 1970s, in the short space of two decades, the middle school had replaced 80 per cent of the nation's 9,500 junior high schools (George, Stevenson, Thomason & Beane, 1982). Between 1970 and 1987 the total number of middle schools serving grades 5 to 9 grew by 4 per cent or 462 schools to 10,587 (Alexander & McEwin, 1989). By 1991 there were over 12,000 middle schools (Valentine, Clark, Irwin, Keefe & Melton, 1993). By 1994, the number had increased to 13,543 (National Center for Educational Studies, 1995), attended by over 50% of pupils in the grade 5- 9 span (Years 6- 10 in New Zealand) (National Middle Schools Association, 1995). Along with this rapid development was the commensurate growth of support groups, teaching programmes, text books and philosophies to support their existence.

Many of the claims for the distinctive role of middle schools in education related to elements that helped establish their particular identity; many were experimental and innovative and devoid of a research basis, but most proposed/imposed structures that were designed to meet the needs of early adolescents (Hargreaves & Tickle, 1980). Although studies by Brooks and Edwards (1978) and Valentine, Clarke, Nickerson and Keefe (1981) found that the most often quoted reason for the establishment of middle schools was to provide programmes better suited to the middle school age group, other researchers such as Mergendoller (1993), Mac Iver and Epstein (1993) suggested that in actuality, few were based on the characteristics of the clientele to whom their existence was owed. Perhaps this was reflected in the frequent policy changes for middle schools in the US. So, explanations for the rise of middle schooling in the US tended to reflect

the relative emphases researchers placed on factors such as innovation, changing social needs, the influence of a scientific view of education and the particular needs of early adolescents. Perhaps, because of their large number, they became a rationale for their own existence.

Recent developments

Although there is now considerable literature about what should comprise suitable schooling for emerging adolescents, research into the provisions of middle schools received little attention until the 1980s. Much of the earlier research that was undertaken tended to reflect the philosophical values of those conducting it (Johnston, 1984) and any attendant reforms usually reflected the partisan perspective of the policy makers.

However, during the early and mid 1980s the quantity and quality of research into middle level education increased, much of it motivated by members of the middle school movement (Mac Iver & Epstein, 1993). During the last decade, the number of researchers studying middle level education has greatly expanded and has received attention from a variety of research disciplines, probably reflecting the increased interest worldwide in the study of adolescents. The research into adolescence has perhaps come about because some have seen the time as a “critical turning point” and “one of the last real opportunities to affect their educational and personal trajectory” (Jackson & Hornbeck, 1989, p. 831).

Along with the interest in middle school education in the US, three other developments emerged. The first concerned the rapid increase in the number of publications and organisations associated with the education of early adolescents *per se*. This was shown by the establishment of organisations such as the Society for Research

on Adolescents in America in 1985 and the increased number of scientific journals and books on research into adolescent behaviour (Petersen & Epstein, 1991). A second development was an increase in the agreement amongst educators as to the direction and strategies for the reform of middle school education. Evidence for this is to be found in both written prescriptions for reform (Clark & Clark, 1993; Fenwick, 1992; Filby, Lee & Lambert, 1990; Merenbloom, 1988) and learning packages that included videotapes and readings (Maryland Task Force on the Middle Learning Years, 1990). Third, the volume and range of data about research into middle school education substantially increased. Research projects, that in the early 1980s were generally limited to small samples and narrow focuses, were superseded in the US, (around the turn of the decade), by large scale projects covering a broad spectrum of topics (Mac Iver & Epstein, 1993).

However, despite the recent wealth of publications, zeal for reform and production of data, most researchers agreed that little change actually resulted (Videro, 1992). As Mac Iver and Epstein (1993) noted:

Currently, few middle grade schools have implemented many of the practices recommended for the education of early adolescents, and even fewer have implemented them well. Progress is likely to continue to be slow. (p. 30)

While other researchers agreed with this view, researchers such as Fullen and Miles, (1992) and Mergendoller (1993) suggested that the reforms to middle school education in the US were limited because of two impediments. The first related to the emphasis on externally controlled structural changes in organisation. Examples of such changes included, merging curricula areas into larger interdepartmental courses, modifying

timetables to allow opportunities for classes to meet for longer, but with fewer periods each week, and instituting “advisory” times so that pupils could establish “deeper emotional ties to a single teacher and to discuss the social, emotional, and health issues students confront” (Mergendoller, 1993, p. 444). Mergendoller (1993) suggested that, although these organisational changes were easy to make and gave the appearance that significant change was taking place in a school, they often did little to change the essential experience of pupils within the school. This was because external administrative changes did not necessarily ensure the commensurate commitment of teachers, and “without such commitment it is doubtful that an advisory period (for example) will have a significant effect on students” (Mergendoller, 1993, p. 444).

A second impediment related to the excessive emphasis that had been placed on the theoretical rationale for reform without adequate time being spent on exploring the processes and results of the reforms being proposed. Mergendoller (1993) referred to this as “powered more by rhetoric than research” (p. 444). One example was that of the idea of introducing an advisory programme without knowing how it would affect different types of students facing different personal issues. Mergendoller (1993) commented:

Without detailed knowledge of what types of programs, under what conditions, actually provide a better match to the unique, developmental needs of early adolescents, practitioners are left to design programs with little knowledge of their effectiveness. (p. 444)

Discussion concerning the relative significance of particular organisational patterns to the effectiveness of learning has continued to interest commentators on middle

schooling. Whether the changes are an attempt to meet the particular needs of the middle school clientele or responses to a theoretical rationale, are still being debated.

The Development of Middle Schools in the United Kingdom

Background

In the past, education in the UK was organised around a divided system, based on social standing. Public, or independent schools, were for middle and upper classes and other schools for the lower social orders. Up to the middle of the last century, this structure was left largely unaltered by the major education reforms in that country (Binder, 1970; Curtis & Boulton, 1960; Evans, 1985).

The advent of the middle school in the UK can be primarily traced to the Hadow Report of 1926 and the recommendation that elementary schooling cover ages 5 to 11. Children would then be able to finish their schooling over a three year period (to age 14) or continue to a secondary school for further education.

In the UK, the provisions of the 1944 Education Act stated that education would be provided according to the age, aptitude and abilities of the children. This move, combined with the strong tradition of regional government in the UK, allowed for varied provisions of middle schooling. Unlike the centralised control of education that developed in New Zealand, under the UK system education was largely the responsibility of the local government; in turn a city council or county council operated a local education committee, many of which established middle schools (Blyth & Derricott, 1977).

The most significant development of the middle school in the UK occurred in the 1960s when, as in the US, there was an upsurge in the number of children receiving secondary education. Along with the emergence of large secondary schools developed

an awareness that although the range of ages being accommodated in secondary schools was not changing, the greater numbers across each age group brought unforeseen social and educational problems of their own. As Gamon and Whalley (1975) stated, "...the large school is best suited to deal with larger children (in both age and size) and in the larger numbers which the systematic learning and examination rationale of the secondary school seem to require" (p. 3).

Gannon and Whalley (1975) suggested that large schools with a range of ages offered more possibility for the emergence of social problems than those schools in which there was a more homogeneous grouping within a smaller age span. The emergence of social problems such as bullying in some of the large, urban secondary schools was the motivation for many researchers and social commentators to review the opinions of school parents on the social climate in large schools and also the role of the media in publicising the social problems associated with large school communities. However, little attention was paid to patterns of socialisation within schools. Indeed, while the importance of socialisation upon children's learning was recognised, there was a natural inclination, on the part of specialist teachers, to give a greater proportion of their time to their specialist subject teaching. This had not been the intention of the Hadow Committee. When it recommended the establishment of 'modern schools' it envisaged an alternative version of secondary schooling; the only difference being that it would absorb those pupils who intended leaving school at age 15 (Selleck, 1972).

From the beginning such schools, which became known as 'secondary modern schools', lacked prestige. Their programmes were shorter, they received pupils who had not gained entrance to a grammar school, their teachers did not need to be as well qualified as their grammar school counterparts (Baron, 1965; Selleck, 1972) and many lacked clear direction or definition of their role (Ball, 1984; Benn & Chitty, 1996). One

effect of this was to place more emphasis on primary schools because they were forced to adopt a greater responsibility in preparing pupils for the eleven-plus examination, which would largely determine the type of secondary school pupils would attend. So, the idea of selection became even more significant as the result of a need to place pupils in appropriate schools (Blyth & Derricott, 1977). The development of an intelligence test by the widely recognised Cyril Burt, based on the claim that intelligence had a significant innate component and could be reliably measured, seemed to offer a means of selection. It was perhaps a relief for the members of the Hadow Committee to be informed that, as a result of this test, the career of a school pupil could be reasonably easily predicted. The test claimed to offer a scientific basis to the social reasons for selecting pupils for grammar, modern or comprehensive school education (Brooks, 1991).

But by the 1950s, the increasing distaste for the eleven-plus examination and the growing awareness that the exam failed to select at eleven many pupils who were capable of 'A' level passes and admission to higher education, caused growing support for a system of non-selective admission into secondary education (Gray, 1990; Simon, 1997; Steedman, 1983; Vernon, 1957). Additionally, in areas where comprehensive schools had been established, there were increasing doubts over their size and the age range (Curtis & Boulton, 1960; Pring & Walford, 1997). Because each comprehensive school catered for the secondary education of all the pupils in an area, and was organised as a whole and not divided into defined grammar, technical and modern divisions, some had from 1800 to 2000 pupils on the roll, with ages from 11 to 18-plus (Ulich, 1962). The trend continued into the next decade. In 1965, 240,000 pupils, or 8.5 per cent of pupils aged 11 or over were accommodated in comprehensive

schools By the end of the 1970s this figure had risen to over three million or nearly 85 per cent (Ball, 1984).

Additionally, during the 1950s and 1960s, there was an increasing awareness that secondary education received more attention than primary and that a review of basic educational principles was necessary. That secondary education overshadowed the needs of primary education can be in part traced to the Spens Report (Board of Education, 1938) which established a tripartite system of secondary education (secondary grammar, secondary technical and secondary modern), and to the Norward Report (1943) which proposed that each division should have parity of amenities and conditions. Reviewers such as Edwards (1972) suggested that this was rarely, if ever, achieved and that issues such as methods of selection, the inferior position of secondary modern schools and the appreciable difference in the quality of education offered were sources of public resentment. So, for political, social and educational reasons, any reform in the organisation and educational provisions of schools would be timely.

Because the common concern about a selective and unequal education system was the eleven-plus examination, it was not surprising that attention turned to ways of eliminating it. Two proposals, the Leicestershire plan and the West Riding plan, were attempts to provide a flexible and equitable post-primary education for all. Their mention here is not so much of historical significance, but because their promoters recognised certain educational characteristics associated with the middle school age group. Many of these illustrated the similarity in the reasons given for establishing middle schooling in the UK, the US and New Zealand. For example, there was widespread acknowledgment that children were maturing at an earlier age and that there was a higher level of sophistication in the preadolescent age group (Boxer, Tobin-Richards & Petersen, 1983). Educationalists promoted programmes that were

characterised by greater individual activity and the mastery of particular knowledge and skills. At the same time, there was increased recognition that some subject specialisation could begin at preadolescence (Tomlinson, 1997). There was also disdain by educationalists for grouping together large numbers of children whose ages spanned a wide range (Selleck, 1972).

The Leicestershire plan, introduced in 1957, was based on the notion of an automatic transfer at age eleven of all children to a first-stage junior comprehensive or junior high school. From this, after three years, pupils could move to a senior comprehensive school or high school which offered a grammar type education, or after four years to a secondary comprehensive (Curtis & Boulton, 1960).

The 1963 West Riding proposal firmly standardised school divisions as the ages, five to nine, nine to 13, and 13 to 18 years. The rationale for this was to be echoed three years later in the Plowden Report (1967), which stated:

At the age of 9+ at the latest all pupils would pass to the Middle school which would continue the work of the Primary school and introduce them to the specialisation which is a proper feature of a good Secondary course but which over vigorously applied can do so much harm to the younger age groups and to the slower learners. (p. 117; paragraph 386; recommendations (a) and (b))

Under the Plowden Report's recommendation, all children would transfer at the age of 12 plus or 13 plus years to a secondary school, which would offer a wide range of courses. Of interest in the development of middle schooling was the recognition that there was a need to continue the organisation based on one teacher in a home room for some pupils, especially those who made slower progress. It was also considered

inappropriate to have in the same organisation, children aged ten-plus with pupils who were mature young men and women (Plowden Report, 1967).

Another major step in the establishment of middle schooling in the UK was the issue of Circular 10/65 by the Department of Education and Science, in July 1965. It established a system of middle schools wherein pupils transferred from a primary school at age eight or nine to a middle school with an age range of eight to 12 years or nine to 13 years. From here they moved to a comprehensive school with an age range of 12 or 13 to 18 years. It also allowed Local Education Authorities (LEAs) to establish a small number of their own middle schools. Clearly the middle school was still seen as experimental in nature.

Further Developments

When Local Education Authorities considered which alternative form of school they would favour (Department of Education and Science, 1965), they usually took the advice of a special committee or working party which was established for that purpose. Many of the issues raised by such working parties share common features associated with the establishment of middle schools in other countries, especially the US and New Zealand.

The first of these issues concerned the age at which children should transfer from primary to middle school. The acknowledgment amongst educational psychologists that children were maturing earlier, both physically and psychologically (Boxer, Tobin-Richards & Petersen, 1983; Santrock, 1996) promoted an uncertainty about whether the age of transfer was based on administrative rather than educational factors. It also promoted a review of what were the common psychological and physical features of children aged 10 to 14 or 15 years (Santrock, 1996; Thornburg, 1983).

There was also ongoing debate amongst educators concerning the advantages of combining the more child-centred approach of primary class teaching with an increased amount of subject specialisation. In the UK, experimental work in widening the curriculum in order to avoid the traditional overemphasis on English and Arithmetic that was associated with the eleven-plus examination (Selleck, 1972), had shown that middle school pupils could readily adapt to changes in the curriculum such as a new form of mathematics, a modified science programme and to the introduction of a foreign language (Lawton, 1997).

Common Themes Associated with Middle School Education

While some themes about middle school education have traditionally emerged and diminished according to the social and educational emphases of a country at a particular time, on a global scale, some have persisted until today. These are discussed below, largely with reference to their role in the development of education in the US and the UK. Examples from other countries are introduced, where appropriate.

Class Spans Encompassed by Middle Schools

The first theme relates to which classes or grades should be accommodated in middle schools. This includes two ongoing issues. The first relates to the questions traditionally raised by parents concerning which type of school best accommodates 10 to 14 year old children. The second issue concerns the claims of superiority made by proponents of middle schools which, on the US scene, usually cater for grades five to eight (10 to 13 year olds) or grades six to eight (11 to 14 year olds (Mergendoller, 1993).

In spite of studies such as that of Lounsbury and Clark (1990) that concluded that the practises of middle schools and junior high schools were “surprisingly alike” (p. 64)

and other studies that suggested a school's grade span does not significantly affect its practices in the middle grades (Calhoun, 1983; Eccles, Lord & Midgley, 1991; Gatewood, 1972; Johnstone, 1984), the grade/age span debate continued unabated. This was reflected in the variation of grade/age spans offered by middle schools, particularly in the US. Mac Iver and Epstein (1993) commented that:

Seventh or eighth graders in the United States are currently found in schools of about 30 different grade spans (mainly 6-8, 7-8, K-8,5-8, 7-12, and K-12 schools), but also in virtually every other grade configuration (4-12, 3-9, seventh only, pre-K-7, and others). (p. 521)

Mac Iver and Epstein (1991) have suggested that, in the US, grade organisation was not a major determinant of the type of practices being implemented in a school. They suggested that public middle schools were more likely than other public schools to adopt pupil support structures. Such structures included programmes that provided pupils with regular opportunities for discussion with peers and a caring adult, interdisciplinary teams of teachers who offered integrated teaching programmes, and activities designed to ease transition to and from middle grades. Alternatively, some middle schools that operated like traditional junior high schools were criticised for treating young adolescents as if they were indistinguishable from older adolescents (Mac Iver & Epstein, 1993). It would appear that the wide variation in practices found in schools with identical grade spans suggested that there was no one grade span that best suited early adolescents. Instead there was some consensus amongst researchers (Eccles, Lord & Midgley, 1991; Epstein & Mac Iver, 1990; Lounsbury & Clark, 1990; National Middle School Association, 1992) that the development of effective

programmes for middle schools was not accomplished by changing the grade spans but by attention to those practices that supported the social, personal and academic needs of early adolescents. The National Middle School Association (NMSA) (1995) for example, suggested that, for early adolescents, particular teaching practices and organisations were not only more significant than the pupil ages or grade span encompassed by a school, but were the key to effective programmes. Regardless of grade span, middle school principals rated their programmes higher if they were characterised by interdisciplinary teams of teachers, shared planning time and flexible timetables (National Middle School Association, 1995).

Internal School Organisation for Effective Curriculum Delivery

The second theme relates to programmes that foster learning. The literature would suggest that, in terms of developing pupils' sense of belonging and fostering a healthy attitude to learning, some school programmes were more conducive to learning than others. For example, a task force report on middle grade education in California (Californian State Department, 1988), insisted that junior high or middle schools which were operating on traditional, departmentalised organisations, changed to a plan that included "core block" or "block time" (p. 106). These large blocks of time would involve groups of teachers from different disciplines teaching the core curriculum subjects and would feature:

...exploratory courses; options for team, collaborative, and self-contained teaching; teacher planning time; equal access of all students to all instructional programs; student advisory programs and/or home rooms; varied lengths of course time to accommodate pre-defined learning goals (e.g., longer periods or

laboratory courses); and innovation and experimentation with varied time configurations.

(California State Department, 1988, p. 107)

It was claimed that this type of programme would fulfil “many of the goals of exemplary middle school education” (Lake, 1988, p.5). The task force report recommended that classroom programmes should retain features of the self-contained elementary (primary) classroom by giving students more time with one teacher or teaching team. The teachers or teaching team would offer an integrated curriculum. In this way teachers, as part of the “home room” organisation, would have more time to act as counsellor and guide. Measor and Woods’ (1984a) research also contrasted the “time oriented” organisation of secondary schools with the “task oriented” activity of middle schools (p. 32). While this observation was made in the context of transition and is discussed more fully in a later section, from an organisation perspective, the sixth grade pupils in the study gave clear preference to the more flexible organisation of their middle schools. Other research suggested that middle and secondary schools whose organisation was based on departments, tended to be associated with poor teacher-pupil relations and low school morale (Becker, 1990; Muth & Alvermann, 1999). In contrast, schools that featured interdisciplinary teaching teams and home-room teachers tended to foster positive academic and social attitudes in pupils (George, Stevenson, Thomason & Beane, 1992). Similar effects were reported by New Zealand studies of educational programmes for Year 9 and 10 pupils (Nolan & McKinnon, 1991).

Other research into organisational changes in the US focussed on the effects of having smaller school-groups within a larger school organisation (Erb, 1986; Hansen & Hearn, 1971; Lake, 1988). At one level, ‘house’ groupings might be organised across

grades or within grades and often contain groups of students with their own administration and use of particular buildings; a school within a school. Different houses might share specialised teaching facilities such as Science laboratories, Music rooms and gymnasium. The house organisation was often a basis for sports competitions. Houses across grades offered continuity of teaching and continuous monitoring. Students and teachers stayed together for all two or three years. Older students welcomed and oriented new students into their house. Over the years of close association, each teacher became familiar with each student and could provide strong, continuous guidance (Lake, 1988). At another level, researchers have suggested that school organisations that include small group activities, implicitly address the social needs of early adolescents. Urdan, Midgely and Wood (1995), for example, suggested that pupils' concerns with social acceptance and ability comparisons can be redirected to a more positive attitude when they're involved in small group situations. They found that small group, task-focussed activities tended to encourage cooperation and task completion (Urdan, Midgley & Wood, 1995).

Support for Interdisciplinary Teaching Teams

The third theme relates to the use of teaching teams and blocks of time. The results of several studies into the effects of organising schools into interdisciplinary teams have reported benefits for learners and teachers (Erb, 1986; George & Oldaker, 1988; Hansen & Hearn, 1971). One example is the study by George and Oldaker (1988) whose investigation of 130 "exemplary" middle schools found that "previously isolated instructors became team members and developed the same sense of belonging and camaraderie they hoped to instil in their students" (p.28).

In another study of block time in a junior high school in Edmonton, Canada, Hansen and Hearn (1971) found benefits in teaching in interdisciplinary teams for both students and teachers. The students felt closer to their teachers and classmates and their attitude towards school and other learners improved. Teachers felt that larger blocks of time allowed them to vary their teaching strategies and to use their individual strengths.

Erb's (1986) study of 200 teachers with up to 16 years of experience of team teaching found that "the interdisciplinary team is a powerful organisational arrangement for improving the professional work life of many middle school teachers" (p. 98). He found that as a result of working in teams, teachers became more involved in school-wide decision-making, valued support from other teachers, more effectively noticed learning problems, and enjoyed more effective communication, not only within a team but with administrators, support personnel and with parents. Erb concluded, "nearly universally, teachers report greater satisfaction with the conditions of teaching when they are organised into interdisciplinary teams" (p.4). These findings were later also confirmed in the US by the National Middle School Association (1995).

The value of an interdisciplinary team of teachers was also indirectly supported by Power and Cotterell's (1981) Australian study of a sample of schools in Brisbane. Primary school teachers frequently cited the problem of pupils' ability to relate to several subject-oriented teachers instead of one. The teachers suggested that the pupils would feel the lack of having someone to relate to in a meaningful way when taught by several teachers instead of one home-room teacher, committed to a class. Secondary teachers did not see this as a problem. Further research by Urdan, Midgley and Wood (1995) noted that feelings of belonging to a group were enhanced when schools were organised into interdisciplinary teams of 100 to 140 pupils. The feeling of belonging

was further enhanced when opportunities for small group activities, including discussion, were available within the larger group.

The research indicated that those schools characterised by positive teacher and pupil attitudes to the school were those which were smaller and which were organised around home-room classes and interdisciplinary teams (Clark & Clark, 1993; George & Shewey, 1994; NMSA, 2000). This type of structure permitted programmes that used large blocks of time in a flexible manner in order to meet the varying needs of the pupils (Dickinson, 1993; George & Shewey, 1994; Hinchco, 1997).

Transition: Coping with Change

The fourth theme relates to pupils' transition between schools. Transition to a new school invariably includes a period of adjustment. This may last until a pupil is able to show they can cope by making appropriate responses to the demands of a new environment. Researchers have described coping in different ways but most imply some form of reorientation between a child's perception of a situation and the abilities they bring to the situation. For example, Lazarus and Launier (1978) defined coping as:

...efforts, both action-oriented and intra-psychic, to manage (i.e. master, tolerate, reduce, minimise) environmental and internal demands, and conflicts among them, which tax or exceed a person's resources. (p. 311)

Cotterell (1982) referred to coping as, "those adaptive behaviours mobilised in the face of stressful events" (p. 69). Common to both is how an event is appraised. Cotterell suggested that appraisal of coping resources is central to adjustment, and that this was essentially a cognitive process because knowledge is the basis for action. The cognitive

process or perception, thought and judgment enable a person to appraise a situation in terms of its potential harm, and to set in motion coping responses. Too much or too little information creates confusion or anxiety and makes action difficult. Cotterell (1986) maintained that having adequate information is a crucial factor in coping and “its absence produces a sense of bewilderment and entrapment in a new setting (p. 70). He saw the problem of securing adequate information as not necessarily being overcome in a few days but continuing well into the first term. This was also evident in the Measor and Woods (1984a) study of transition where the “initial encounters” phase (p.32) occupied two or three weeks of the new secondary school term. Successful adaptation to the formal demands of the new [secondary] school lasted until the beginning of the second term. For them, the anxiety of transition was clearly related to the differences between the two schools, as the following quote illustrates:

The comfortable, homely, secure environment of primary education will be exchanged for a brash, impersonal, more cosmopolitan environment, where they must find their own solutions. (Measor & Woods, 1984a, p. 29)

Research by Simmons, Burgeson, Careton-Ford and Blyth (1987) suggested that transition often occurs at the same time as children also have to make other adjustments. The most significant is the onset of puberty with its implications for physical appearance and social relations. According to Simmons et al. (1987), the more transition events that have to be negotiated, the greater the likelihood of negative consequences. Other researchers have afforded greater significance to physical rather than psychological factors in coping with transition to secondary school (Hirsch & Rapkin, 1987). Not all researchers, however, agree with an earlier assertion by Simmons, Blyth, Van Cleane and Bush (1979), that school transition is a more potent threat to adjustment

to a new culture than puberty. Nevertheless, the stress associated with transition, however significant, is widely recognised amongst researchers. Wigfield and Eccles (1994), for example, found a decline in young adolescents' self-esteem, the values they attributed to school subjects, when they moved from a classroom-based, sixth grade setting at an elementary school, to a departmentalised junior high school. One of the most significant changes was the decline in the pupils' beliefs about their competency in different subjects (Wigfield & Eccles, 1995).

Another Australian study investigated the varying challenges offered by pupils taking different transition paths to secondary school. Cotterell (1992) analysed the transfer of 778 pupils from self-contained primary classrooms in 11 primary schools to subject-specific classrooms in one of three secondary schools. It was hypothesised that changes in school size, traced in terms of different paths taken by students, would influence student expectations as well as their initial adjustment to secondary school to a greater extent than would individual difference factors such as student adaptability and gender. It was expected that pupils who experienced a major environmental change (those transferring from a small school to a large school) would report greater trauma in adjusting to the transition. A further hypothesis was that, prior to the transition those attending smaller primary schools would express greater optimism about their school future than would students in large primary schools. This was similar to the conclusions about "better" experiences for small school inhabitants expressed in Barker and Gump's (1964) study of large and small schools.

In the Cotterell (1992) study, the transition from primary to secondary school was seen as comprising three phases. The first was an anticipatory coping phase, in which pupils on the brink of transfer, generated expectations about the environments they were about to enter. A second phase, one of initial reaction, covered the first month or two in

a new school, as pupils adjusted to the features of their new environment. Finally, a consolidation phase occurred, when pupils established routine responses to school and classroom demands, and began to identify with the school as members of the student body rather than as newcomers. The times for adjustment to be observed were, immediately prior to the transition, shortly after transfer, and, at the end of the first term at secondary school (Cotterell, 1992).

The results showed that, near the point of transition, the pupils used terms that suggested their sense of insignificance or powerlessness as newcomers on the high school scene. This finding was similar to studies in the US, the UK and Australia (Fisher, Frazer & Murray, 1984; Nisbet & Entwistle, 1969; Measor & Woods, 1984a; Youngman, 1986). However, several months after transfer, differences in student adaptability continued to affect their views of the classroom environment (Nisbet & Entwistle, 1969). More adaptable pupils saw their classrooms as being more supportive, more organised, and more growth-oriented than did their less adaptable colleagues. In this respect, the Fischer, Frazer and Murray (1984) findings agree with those of Nisbet and Entwistle (1969) concerning the importance of personality factors in predicting later adjustment following transfer. Additionally, the Epstein and Karweit study (1983) suggested that a link between pupil adaptability and positive perceptions of a new environment might be related to the establishment of friendship ties. Their study in Australia suggested that more adaptable pupils benefitted from their greater social skills in adjusting to new environments. This is further discussed in the section below, on peer effects.

That most pupils express anxiety about transition, albeit to varying degrees, is a common theme in the literature on pupils' perception of their move to secondary schools. That there are various stages that pupils experience in their transition is also a

feature of the literature. This study also offered further evidence about the effects of transition and the stages of adjustment to a new school. These are discussed in Chapter Five.

Peer Effects

The fifth theme relates to how pupils relate to a change in their environment. One variable in coping with transition is the perceptions that pupils hold of their place in the new setting. While knowledge about their new social environment is of obvious significance to those in transition, it is likely that pupils attribute even greater significance to their place in it. It has long been recognised by researchers that knowledge of pupil inter-relationships is a major component of pupils' experiences in the school context. But, because knowledge about the identities that children acquire and how these are acquired have remained largely a mystery, researchers have given increased attention to both pupils' knowledge about their identity as individuals within school social settings and also to their membership of a peer group. Studies into children's perceptions of their social status at school, at the primary school level, for example, include those by Nash (1973), Meyenn (1980), Measor and Woods (1984a), Midgley and Edelin (1998); Pollard (1985) and Schaffer (1996). Children's awareness of their status in classrooms was the focus of Nash's investigation in the UK and Mason's in Canada. In both instances, children were aware of their individual ranking and/or that of their groups in relation to others in the classroom. Furthermore, they were loathe to change their position and strove to maintain their relative status within the class. Nash suggested that once children have firmly accepted their position with respect to their classmates, they not only accept it but adapt their learning responses to keep it constant. This is supported by other research studies such as those by Brown (1965) and

Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) which showed that pupils' attempts to maintain position above some and below others in a class, influenced their decision making. Measor and Woods (1984a) suggested that some pupils' expectation of harder schoolwork at secondary school threatened their self-image as competent learners. They found that, for many pupils, their confidence in themselves as high achievers, suddenly appeared fragile as transition approached. Nash (1973) commented that "schools teach hierarchal levels of self worth more successfully than anything else" (p.16). Measor and Woods (1984a) found "status, competence and relationships ... at the bottom of much of pupils' anxiety" (p.29). Schaffer (1996) regarded the relationship between schooling and self-image as a reciprocal one. He suggested that schools affected the extent to which pupils saw themselves as being socially as well as academically successful. This was confirmed by Wood and Jones (1997) who suggested that educationally effective programmes for emerging adolescents should address both academic and social factors.

An investigation of twelve and thirteen year olds girls in the UK by Meyenn (1980) also disclosed that peer groups appeared to be the dominant organising principle in their social life. The girls in this study were able to clearly identify the differences in attitudes, interests and behaviour between their own peer group and that of other groups. Similarly, Pollard's (1984) study of a middle school for 8 to 12 year-olds identified pupil groupings, including 'good groups', 'joker groups' and 'gang groups'. The Measor and Woods (1984a) study also distinguished between "conformists" and "deviants" (p. 33). In both studies, different groups had very different perspectives on school life and what was seen to be acceptable conduct. The differences were obvious in terms of their attitudes to themselves, to other pupils and towards teachers and their school.

Peer interaction has also been the focus of studies of secondary schools, some of which have examined the labelling or categorising of pupils by teachers (Hargreaves, 1967; Hargreaves, Hester & Mellor, 1975; Keddie, 1971; Meyenn, 1980). Studies concerning secondary school boys include Hargreaves's (1967) enquiry in Britain into the social structure of informal groups of pupils and the influence of such groups on the education process. He focussed on the conformity to group norms, the rejection of deviants and the study of a delinquent group whose behaviour and attitude were negative in terms of school values. His findings supported the fundamental importance of the social system of the school in influencing the values, norms and status hierarchies of members of peer groups, and especially the structure of groups in relation to the educative process. For instance, he confirmed the association between low stream and delinquency and the "status deprivation" of those denied being able to sit outside exams (p. 184). He suggested that although the development of subcultures was most obvious in the third and fourth year of secondary school, the development of different status groups began soon after entry to secondary school.

That the early adolescent stage of development is characterised by a concern with peer relations is also well documented by researchers including Berndt, Hawkins and Hoyle (1989), Bukowski (1993), Czikszenmihalyi and Larsen (1984), Dovan and Gold (1966), Measor and Woods (1984b) and Fischer, Sollie and Morrow (1986). Czikszenmihalyi and Larsen (1984), for example, have suggested that early adolescents spend more time with their peers than with others, including parents, and that this is part of establishing a social identity. While the early adolescent stage is not characterised by the depth or intimacy characteristic of later adolescence (Seltzer, 1989), as far as coping with transition is concerned, early adolescents often choose their friends on the basis of a common characteristic or experiences (Atwater, 1992). Measor and Woods (1984a)

suggested that in the first few weeks of settling into a new secondary school the basis of pupil friendships was the school they had previously attended.

In her New Zealand study of the application of pupil categorisation of their peers, Mitchell (1989) investigated fourth form (Year 10) pupils' perceptions of who they saw as being different and how they were labelled. In negotiating their social reality, pupils used labels to categorise others in terms of their past experiences and expectations about their future behaviour. While the application of labels changed in their frequency of usage, it was obvious that pupils developed and used terms that became accepted as part of the school culture, and that the use of labels clearly influenced one's social standing. One outcome of Mitchell's (1989) research was the extent and intensity of pupils hassling other students. She suggested that some students experience extreme stress as a result of hassling:

These stressful encounters may pass unnoticed by the casual observer, but for some students they can develop into relationships from which it is very difficult to extricate themselves and which are damaging to their self image. Going to school is not fun for everybody. (p. 8)

Measor and Woods (1984a) also commented on the "intense anxiety" caused by the prospect of losing friends as part of transition. As explained earlier, initial friendships at secondary school tended to be gender-oriented and based on middle school contacts. However, these were temporary and new friendships, including cross-gender ones, emerged after pupils had gained confidence in their new setting.

Negotiating one's social standing in the school culture appeared to be common to the majority of studies. This is discussed in Chapters 7 and 8.

Summary

The emergence of the middle school in the US and the UK share some common features, most relating to the historical development of middle schooling. Other, related issues include the effects of transition to a larger and often different school.

Historically, research since the 1940s in both countries, recognised emerging adolescence as a group with particular social and psychological characteristics who warranted particular educational provisions. Varying social and educational developments of the 1950s and afterwards, combined with an increasing school population because of those who were staying longer at school, meant that schools were being put under pressure to expand. This prompted suggestions that schools should not just grow in size but in diversity of structures. Accommodating the middle years in a particular school was for the first time a reasonable economic and educational option.

Along with the establishment of middle schools, emerged a particular philosophy for learning and teaching. In part, this was due to the rejection of the junior high school in the US and the inadequacies of the selection methods for secondary schooling in the UK. In contrast, the middle school offered a philosophy which was more attuned to pupil learning than to organised structures.

In the UK, special provisions for the education of the emerging adolescent, that had been researched so extensively in the US, were generally not given the prominence it was given in the US. Middle schools remained a minority in a system which traditionally resisted change to well-established systems. In the US, they offered an alternative form of education that appeared to be more organisationally attuned to the needs of early adolescents.

The research suggested that the movement into a larger, more organisationally-driven institution, offered varying challenges for pupils. Adaptation to a new environment had implications for relations with others, including social standing and personal identity. Some organisational structures were more effective in diverting concerns about personal and social issues to a more interactive and cooperative perspective.

The challenges posed by the transition into a different school culture was a significant feature of this research study and is the focus of Chapter Seven. In addition, one of the case studies in Chapter Eight, offers further insights into the challenge of role redefinition.

The next chapter, reviews issues associated with the development of middle schools in New Zealand.

CHAPTER 3

THE DEVELOPMENT OF MIDDLE SCHOOLING IN NEW ZEALAND

Introduction

This chapter reviews the development of middle schooling in New Zealand. It begins with an overview of the historical, political, social and educational factors that combined in the emergence of the junior high school. It describes the evolution of the junior high to the intermediate school and the political and educational opportunities that allowed middle schools to develop. The latter part of the chapter addresses the issues related to middle schooling; many of which have persisted to today.

Background

From the first calls by educationalists for special provision for middle schooling, New Zealand has been influenced by developments from overseas, particularly those in the US and the UK.

As Watson (1964) pointed out, policy makers in New Zealand education had always been aware of overseas trends in education and their possible influence in New Zealand. Indeed, as far back as the 1877 Education Act, the calls for special provision for middle school education came from overseas. The first report of the Minister of Education in 1878 included the comment:

There is no public school in the Wellington or Wanganui District which can be looked upon as serving as a step from the primary school to the Wellington College; and the want of such schools will become daily more and more apparent.

(cited in Watson, 1964, p.4)

Largely as a result of this report, a commission was established to consider the most effective way of bridging primary and secondary education. Their concerns (in the 1870s) were not unlike those that exist today; the age of transfer, what curriculum should be taught and what special staffing provisions were required.

Further evidence in support for a form of middle schooling was obtained from overseas, when in 1921, the Minister of Education, James Parr, invited Frank Milner and T.U. Wells, to examine developments in early secondary schooling in Canada and the US. After observing numerous junior high schools in the US, they returned, convinced that New Zealand education would benefit from the introduction of such schools. Their report identified the advantages of junior high schools, as seen by researchers in the US. These included, the necessity of stopping pupils leaving school early and the provision for adequate vocational guidance for pupils. The report also recognised the demand for more scientific provision for the distinctive needs of adolescents and the desire to economise school time, including making the curriculum bear directly on the practical needs of life (A-J. 1921 E-11. p. 3).

Wells assured Parr in his report that:

... junior high schools justified their existence because they bridged the gap between the elementary and high schools (and that) they provided better educational opportunities for a large number of children; I have confidence in recommending the institution of similar schools in our dominion.

(cited in Cumming & Cumming, 1978, p. 224)

One model that appealed to Parr was the English system of central schools. These schools were intended to provide a measure of vocational education for those pupils who had completed their primary schooling but who were not suited to the academic rigour of secondary schools. As Lee and Lee (1996) observed, the curriculum was to have an industrial or commercial focus so as to be “eminently practical without being vocational in any narrow sense” (p. 146).

Conflict of Aims

The first New Zealand middle schools (called junior high schools), were established, in the 1920s, on essentially educational grounds. They catered for the first three years of post-primary school. They offered both a finishing education based on the core subjects for those leaving school, and also courses which were designed to prepare those who were continuing on to a secondary school (Stewart & Nolan, 1992).

This point of view was not shared by McKenzie, Lee & Lee (1990), who suggested that the reasons for the development of the junior high school in New Zealand had less to do with education than they had to do with political and social stability. They suggested, for example, that the reason for the Minister of Education raising the school leaving age to 15 in the early 1920s, was that it gave teachers an opportunity to indoctrinate youth with those values necessary to promote social order:

I want to keep every boy - I do not care how dull he is - at school until he is 15. Then something can be ‘knocked into’ him... This is the time for the teaching of history, civics and economics so that the children will not fall an easy prey, as so

many of the half-educated do today, to the soap-box orators with their unsound doctrines.

(James Parr, Minister of Education; cited in McKenzie, Lee & Lee, 1990, p. 17)

The particular curriculum for achieving these ends was not seen by the Minister of Education as belonging in either primary or secondary education; the junior high schools were to develop their own curriculum. Primary school was for learning the three R's; the secondary school was for educating the future leaders of society, especially for the professions. What he saw as being needed was a new type of school that was designed to meet the needs of those pupils who were unsuited to the demands of traditional secondary education or who did not intend staying at school beyond the minimum leaving age (Lee & Lee, 1996).

The recommendation to proceed with the establishment of junior high schools came about as a result of the conference on post-primary education in 1922. The conference recommended that three-year, junior high schools be established as separate units. The regulations were gazetted in September, 1922 (New Zealand Department of Education, 1922, 4 September) and in October of that year, Kowhai Junior High School opened.

However, conflicting educational and political implications of the aims of the new school were apparent from the start. While Parr, as Minister of Education, had political intentions of using the junior high school to cater for the needs of a particular social and intellectual group, the first principal, R. E. Rudman saw the school's role as primarily educational; that is, the preparation of pupils for secondary education (Lee & Lee, 1996). Consequently, within a year of the opening of Kowhai Junior High School, the Department of Education overruled the principal's decision to refuse admission to

any pupil who had not passed the Standard Four examination. While this ruling resulted in open entry to the school, the function of the first junior high schools remained obscure. For example, reports from Ministers of Education in the first two years of operation clearly implied that these schools were to help pupils discover their special abilities (Lee & Lee, 1996). Yet, early recommendations by the General Council of Education suggested that two-thirds of courses should comprise core curriculum subjects. Additionally, pupils were to be prepared for secondary school studies and not be denied an opportunity to prepare for the Proficiency Examination (Beeby, 1938; Watson, 1964). It was not surprising, therefore, that given this multiplicity of purposes, Kowhai Junior High School readily adopted streaming procedures and specialisation. This offered one means of accommodating the varied functions of the school.

The Relationship between Junior High Schools, Primary and Secondary Schools

For the first forty years of their existence the junior high schools were the focus of a series of reports, mostly concerned with the age at which primary education should finish and the particular function of junior high schools. The Tate Report of 1925 recommended that primary schooling cease at age 12 and that qualified pupils be encouraged to enter secondary schools for full courses. For those likely to leave at age 15, Tate suggested separate junior high schools which would offer vocationally-oriented courses (Lee & Lee, 1997). Such schools would offer an education that was an end in itself for the non-academic pupil. More able pupils would enjoy a full secondary course. Clearly, the junior high schools were not seen as serving a transitional purpose.

This division was not to be long-lasting. A change of government and a call for a review of the primary school syllabus resulted in the Syllabus Revision Committee Report of 1928. Apart from confirming that primary education should cease at 12 years,

the committee had been unable to reach agreement on several issues (Lee & Lee, 1996; Openshaw, Lee & Lee, 1993). One faction supported the continued division of pupils into different schools based on the age at which their education would finish, and a minority group recommended the earlier commencement of curriculum specialisation. It took a further report in 1930, by a committee chaired by H. Atmore to clarify the functions of junior high schools (Openshaw et al., 1993). They were to offer a two-fold course. One course was characterised by a finishing, practical education which would equip pupils for the labour market. The other was based on more academic and specialised subjects that bridged the gap to secondary schooling.

By the end of 1932 there were 10 junior high schools in New Zealand. Nine of these were attached to other schools, six to secondary schools, one to a primary school, one to a district high school, one to a technical school and Kowhai, the only stand-alone school (Beeby, 1938). Most offered a three year course spanning Forms One and Two ¹ and the first year of secondary school.

The Change to Two-year Intermediate Schools

As the result of what was eventually to become known as The Depression, an Order-in-Council notice in December, 1932 reduced the course length of intermediate schools from three years to two. The junior high schools were renamed intermediates, and less liberal staffing ratios and salary scales were introduced (Watson, 1964). The option of offering a finishing school course was replaced with the new role of being a two year transition between primary education and secondary education. The courses would

¹ The first 'full primary' schools in New Zealand offered eight years of education; two years in the primers and six in the standard classes, culminating in Standards Five and Six. When these last two classes were detached from primary schools in the 1920s to form the basis of a new school such as a junior high school, or in the 1930s to form intermediate schools and later Area Schools, they became known as Forms One and Two. Since 1998, they have been known as Years Seven and Eight.

offer opportunities for pupils to explore their aptitudes before progressing to secondary school. Lee and Lee (1996) noted the irony that intermediates were promoted as supporting education as a continuous process rather than terminal, when in 1932, fewer than half the children remained at school beyond their 14th birthday. With the majority of pupils leaving school from Form One or Two, the intermediate was in fact a terminal or 'end-in-itself' school rather than preparatory for secondary school.

Union Issues and Further Reviews

In former times, New Zealand followed the UK pattern of regarding elementary education as a terminal form of education. Elementary education was designed to meet the needs of the majority of pupils. Secondary education was viewed as a separate and different form of education that catered for the academically more able. The two divisions have largely remained quite separate. McLaren (1974) commented:

There was not therefore from the beginning any tradition of co-operation, collaboration or coordination between the two branches of the education service. Each believed it had a particular job to do and did it more or less in isolation from the other 'partner'. (p 73)

The 1932 Education Regulations clearly formalised intermediate education to be under the control of education boards and to be staffed almost entirely by primary teachers (Watson, 1964). This meant that third forms would be part of the secondary school administration. This was a practical move in a time of declining secondary rolls, especially when third formers made up approximately one-third of all secondary enrolments (Beeby, 1938). It was expected that as competition for third formers was

now removed, administrative friction between the sectors would disappear (Watson, 1964).

The regulations did not please any teaching union (Stewart & Nolan, 1992). The union for primary school teachers, the New Zealand Education Institute (NZEI), objected to the different staffing and salary scales (Beeby, 1938). The Primary School Headmasters Association was anxious about the effects of decapitation on primary schools (Beeby, 1938; Watson, 1964). The Secondary Schools Association (SSA) criticised the inadequacy of equipment in intermediate schools for them to teach the curriculum (Beeby, 1938; Campbell, 1941). The New Zealand Post-Primary Teachers Association (NZPPTA)² and the NZEI disagreed on the location of intermediates, the former suggesting they be attached to secondary schools (Beeby, 1938). Additionally, during the 1930s, the issue of the autonomous versus the transitional role of the intermediate school remained. Comments from visiting overseas educationalists fuelled the debate. Professor Fred Clarke of the University of London's Institute of Education was highly critical of the "bridging" role of intermediates and their short, two-year programmes (Cumming & Cumming, 1978, p. 253). Another visitor, Dr. W. Boyd, Head of Glasgow University's Education Department, in an address to the New Education Fellowship Conference in New Zealand in July, 1937, was critical of the "grievous lack of coordination" that existed between primary and post-primary education spheres (Boyd; cited in Lee & Lee, 1996, p. 18; also cited in Watson, 1964, p. 62). Such viewpoints, combined with the varied unions' views were ample reasons for the Minister of Education, Peter Fraser, to call for a review of the intermediate school system. The outcome of the review was Dr. Beeby's (1938) report, *The Intermediate Schools of New Zealand*. It was regarded as the first comprehensive and systematic

investigation of intermediate schools since the establishment of junior high schools in 1922. The basic tenets of Beeby's recommendations appeared to give direction and coherence to intermediate schools' policy.

According to Beeby, the basic functions that intermediate schools were to offer included an education that would be socially integrative, giving all pupils a common basis of experience. Because they would introduce pupils to the worlds of industry, commerce and the professions, intermediate schools would help each pupil in their choice of future school courses and occupations. They would offer a rounded-off education to pupils not intending to complete a post-primary course. They would simultaneously provide a bridging environment between primary and secondary education, and continue to offer a basic skills programme to individual children when necessary (Beeby, 1938). With these purposes, the direction for intermediates was clearly seen as threefold: providing for preparation for secondary schooling, providing transition between the two sectors and providing a terminal education for those seeking employment.

Other recommendations by Beeby applied to issues that have persisted until today. These included requirements that intermediate schools be established only after full consultation with the school community. Pupils were to enter intermediate schools after their Standard Four year or as soon as possible after the age of 12 years. Intermediate schools were to remain independent education units. An increasing range of options was to be offered to pupils as they moved through the intermediate school. Pupils' exploration of their aptitudes was to be a continuing process. Intermediate schools were to be better resourced than they currently were (Beeby, 1938).

² The secondary teachers' union.

Commentators such as Lee, Faulds & Lee (1993) suggested that Beeby felt duty bound to support the intermediate school because it was accepted Labour government policy. That aside, and despite the restrictions of the Second World War, the number of intermediate schools continued to expand and while successive governments continued to question the validity and direction of the intermediate school movement, Beeby's recommendations continued as the basis for intermediate philosophy for many years. (Lee et al., 1993).

Union issues concerning the roles, salaries and responsibilities of intermediate school teachers were never close to agreement. The post-war expansion in the school-age population and the need for more schools, teachers and resources prompted a call by the newly elected National government, in 1949, for a review of education provisions in terms of whether money budgeted for education was being prudently spent. Furthermore, the new minister of education, R. M. Algie, admitted that he was not committed to intermediate schools (Lee & Lee, 1996).

The NZEI was quick to respond. In 1950, the NZEI executive compiled a report on intermediate schools and sent it to the Minister of Education (Watson, 1964). The report reaffirmed the union's traditional policy and claimed that because intermediates were less expensive than the alternatives, the government should endorse three-year, independent, intermediate schools (Watson, 1964). The report also opposed early subject specialisation on three grounds; that specialisation was better suited to the older adolescents, that pupils would become junior members of an older age group and that it committed pupils to a course of study before their abilities could be adequately diagnosed (Department of Education, 1962).

In 1951, the NZPPTA, responded by calling for a further review of intermediates. The Minister of Education's response was to convene a conference on intermediate

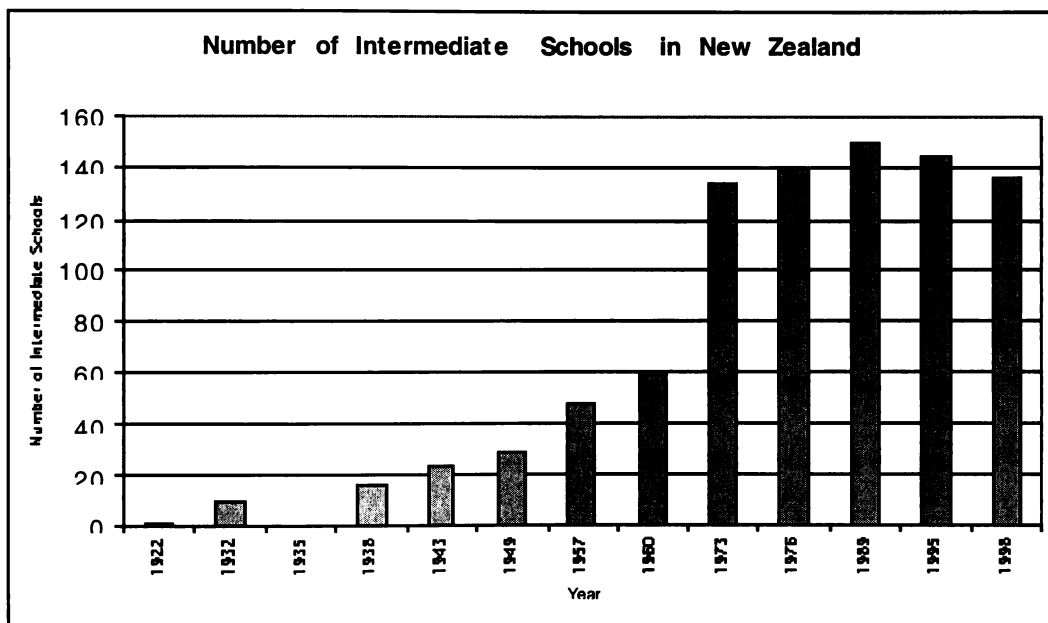
education to which numerous primary, intermediate and secondary principals were invited. The conference endorsed the status quo; intermediates were to remain autonomous (Lee & Lee, 1996).

For the next decade, intermediate schools continued to grow in number and to be the focus of periodic outbursts of criticism along the traditional issues outlined above. By the late 1950s however, a new issue became increasingly apparent. There was a fear that standards in the New Zealand education system were falling. In the face of mounting criticism, the government acknowledged that in the light of ever increasing expenditure on education it was opportune for the country to “take stock of its educational situation” (Holmes, 1977, p. 140). This review eventually became known as the Report of the Commission on Education in New Zealand, or more commonly, the Currie Report or the Currie Commission. It published an interim report in July 1960 and a full report two years later (Department of Education, 1962). Although the Currie Commission collected evidence from a wide range of educationalists, its conclusions were not particularly innovative. McLaren (1974) found this not surprising, given the “cautious” approach and “lack of reforming zeal” of the Commission (p. 138). Thirteen of the 14 recommendations that related directly to intermediate education were virtually identical to the recommendations arrived at by Beeby 24 years earlier (Lee et al, 1993). The only exception was the role of curriculum specialisation. The Currie Commission suggested that the introduction of secondary school subjects begin at Form One (Year 7) (Department of Education, 1962; Department of Education, 1977).

Nevertheless, during the 1960s, intermediate schools continued to fulfil their traditional threefold role and their growth continued (Table 1). In the ten years following the 1962 Currie Commission, the number of intermediate schools doubled

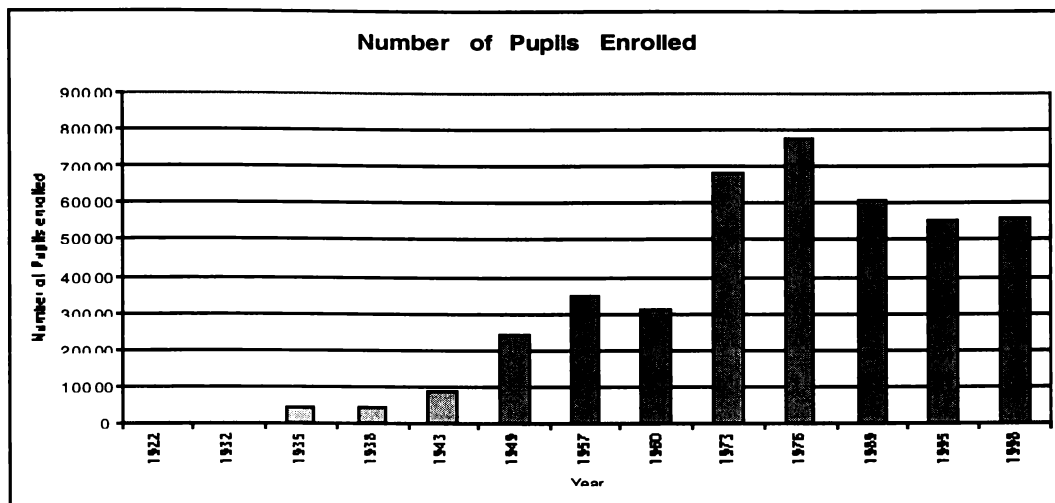
(Department of Education, 1977). Concurrently, a high proportion of pupils were going on to secondary school and remaining there after the compulsory leaving age of 15 years. A further review by the Educational Priorities Conference in 1970, (which following a change of government became the Educational Development Conference in 1972) did not offer any new directions. The Educational Development Conference confirmed the value of intermediate schools, particularly in terms of their transitional role as a part of a continuous process of education (Educational Development Conference, 1974).

Table 1



(Sources: Lee & Lee, 1996; New Zealand Year Book 1933 and 1993)

Table 2



; New Zealand Yearbooks 1933 and 1999)

It was probably the role of transition, and more specifically, where the NZEI and NZPPTA responsibilities lay, that caused further union confrontation in the 1970s. The issue largely concerned NZEI support for the role of intermediates and the NZPPTA doubts about them. This resulted in a call for a further review (Lee & Lee, 1996). Other critics commented on the lack of a unified teaching profession because both unions had vested interests in intermediate schooling (Lee & Lee, 1996). Even a further conference, the Futuna Conference of 1974, and the National Survey of Intermediate schools in 1976, served only to confirm the conclusions arrived at by all the studies undertaken on intermediate schooling to date. Clearly, none offered any viable alternative to meeting the needs of the 11 to 13 year age group. A new catalyst would be required to enable any change in intermediate education.

Curriculum Delivery

The issues related to curriculum delivery in intermediate schools have not been so much about what should be taught or the content of the syllabus as about the degree of curriculum specialisation and who should teach it. Issues associated with curriculum delivery are closely related to the intended functions of the junior high and intermediate schools and union demarcation (discussed above). This section reviews the purpose of curriculum delivery in terms of schools' responses to the political and social demands made on curriculum planners. Many of the issues are also current concerns of contemporary middle schools.

When the first junior high schools opened in 1922, the Minister of Education's view of curriculum was one that clearly differentiated between that offered at secondary schools for the more academically able and that offered at the junior high school. The latter was designed with the intention to avoid having the less academically able students marking time at secondary school by offering a programme where "something could be knocked into him (sic)" (Parr; quoted in the Otago Daily Times, 22-6-20; cited in Lee et al., 1996, p. 2; See also, McKenzie, Lee & Lee, 1990, p. 17).

The curriculum for the junior high school then, was designed to fulfil political ends; to counter what the Minister of Education saw as a Bolshevik evil sweeping the world (Openshaw, 1980). Despite opposition from members of the inspectorate, Parr's ideas found favour and his curriculum intentions were confirmed at the Grading Conference of 1920 and the Conference on Education in 1921. These conferences endorsed the view that elementary education was to favour the fundamental core subjects and to end at 12 years. Thereafter, pupils would be sorted into different classes according to their ability and foreseen future social and economic roles. In further

confirming Parr's curriculum policy in 1921, the General Council of Education, a government working group, recommended that three-fifths of the first three years of the post-primary curriculum be common to all pupils and the remaining two-fifths be organised into academic and practical streams (Watson, 1964).

This differentiated approach to education served only to confuse schools' interpretations of their roles and particularly the place of the Proficiency Examination which had traditionally been offered at the end of Standard Six. Some interpretations of the curriculum also drew criticism on sexist and racist grounds. Examples from the late 1920s included that of the Wellington Women Teachers Association concern with compulsory domestic instruction for girls on the grounds that it would imperil general education for girls and interfere with their examination preparation (Openshaw, Lee & Lee, 1993). Many Maaori parents were unwilling to be "fobbed off" with agricultural courses which they regarded as a second-best curriculum (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 53).

The 1928 Lawson Committee noted the consequences for socioeconomic differentiation that could follow from the imposition of separated curricula and suggested that vocational training be delayed until pupils had completed their fifteenth year (Gordon, 1989). This did little to allay the confusion in junior high schools as to what curriculum should be provided. This was particularly so in terms of the degree of subject specialisation, vocational education, preparation for the Proficiency Examination and their ability to offer a finishing education for school leavers. Members of the Tate Committee in 1928 could not agree on the type of curriculum to be offered. Therefore, it continued to be offered as variances on two strands. The first strand was a preparatory course for those going on to secondary school, including foreign languages and a greater depth in Art, Music and Science. An alternative strand included junior high schools offering a rounding off, practical education for those leaving school to

enter the labour market. There was no resolution concerning related curriculum issues, including the significance of the Proficiency Examination, the identification of particular pupil talents, the exploration of new subjects and the limited availability of resources (Beeby, 1938).

The 1932 Order-in-Council regulations gave some direction by reinforcing the importance of the Proficiency Examination by requiring that:

All pupils in an intermediate school or intermediate department shall for approximately seventeen hours per week receive instruction in english, arithmetic, history and civics, geography, elementary science, drawing, singing and physical education, and the instruction shall follow on broad lines the prescription for Forms 1 and 2 in the Syllabus for Instruction for public (primary) schools. During the remaining portion of the school week all pupils shall receive manual or home arts instruction for not less than one and a half hours weekly, and also a supplementary course of instruction chosen from the following courses: academic, commercial, agricultural, art, or manual training.

(cited in Beeby, 1938, pp. 51-52)

Clearly, there was to be little time available for the exploration of particular talents and abilities. It would not be until Beeby's 1938 report that the curriculum would be further clarified. Along with the decapitation of the junior high schools into two year intermediates was the requirement that "earlier specialisation on post-primary subjects such as foreign languages, mathematics, book-keeping, shorthand and typing" was not needed (Beeby, 1938, p. 53).

Throughout the 1940s and 1950s, issues about curriculum presentation were subjugated to the more general concerns as to the role of the intermediates, especially in an era where the number of schools was rapidly increasing. The main concerns were what the curriculum should entail, including the role of subject specialisation, and union control over specialisation. Additionally, in response to mounting public and political criticisms regarding 'falling standards' in the New Zealand education system, the government decided in 1960 that a general survey of the education system was necessary (Lee & Lee, 1996). This eventuated in the Currie Commission (or the Currie Report) referred to earlier.

From the perspective of who controlled curriculum delivery, the report recognised that goodwill and cooperation between primary and secondary teachers had gone as far as it could. The report suggested that it was an appropriate time to reinforce those changes to curricula and specialist teaching that were naturally evolving. McLaren (1974) suggested that the need for more efficient and intensive education at the intermediate level had been:

...forcing the secondary subject specialist and his disciplines into Forms I and II on the one hand and on the other necessitating the use of the best type of primary teacher along with his methods and a modification of the primary syllabus and subject content in Forms III and IV. (McLaren, 1964, p. 75)

The Currie Commission also recognised that the secondary syllabus could no longer be postponed into Form Three or primary education concluded at Form Two. It clearly saw secondary education beginning at Form One (Currie, 1962). To this end, the Commission recommended the immediate drawing up of curricula for Forms One to

Four (Years 7 to 10)³ in all subjects other than those which would still begin at secondary school, for example, commercial subjects. It recommended that investigation be made into the development of a Form 1 to 4 Social Studies syllabus (in part to avoid overlap of content), that the Science curriculum for Forms 1 and 2 be linked with the secondary syllabus and that a group of officers be established within the Department of Education to organise the preparation and coordination and revision of curricula from infants to Form 6 (Department of Education, 1962).

Time for an Alternative?

By 1973 the popularity of the intermediate school had begun to decline and although the number of intermediate schools increased slowly between 1976 and 1989 from 140 to 149 the number of enrolments fell from 77,315 to 60,774 over the same period (Lee & Lee, 1996). Aware of this trend, in 1989 the New Zealand Intermediate Schools' Principals Association surveyed parents' views on the effectiveness of the intermediate schooling system. Forty two per cent expressed particular support for intermediates, and forty four per cent stated that they did not like such schools or that they would prefer some alternative arrangement (Lee & Lee, 1996, p. 166). This ambivalence with intermediate schooling may have³ been timely for the Labour government's review of primary and secondary education. The Taskforce to Review Educational Administration was established in July 1987 and after considering more than 700 submissions (Taskforce to Review Educational Administration, 1988), published its report, *Administering for Excellence* in April, 1988. This became the basis for the government's blueprint for educational change, *Tomorrow's Schools* (Lange, 1988),

³ An explanation of the particular terminology applied to classes is offered in Appendix I.

which was released in August, 1988. Fundamental to both reports were two ideas that have allowed the development of middle schooling in New Zealand; the transfer of the administrative and employment responsibilities from education boards to Boards of Trustees, and the abolition of school zoning (Lange, 1988).

By the end of the 1980s, the intermediate system was under threat from first, being sandwiched between the two main providers of education and second, by falling school rolls. It was timely for the New Zealand Intermediate and Middle Schools Association (NZIMSA) to commission Massey University's Educational Research and Development Centre to produce a report on middle schooling. The aim of the study, co-authored by David Stewart and Pat Nolan, was to review the best ways of meeting the educational and developmental needs of the emerging adolescent (Stewart & Nolan, 1992). For too long, the NZIMSA claimed, the debate about the best educational provisions for emerging adolescents had been based on "hearsay, political and economic convenience and questionable private agendas" (Davison & Thwaites, 1995, p. 4). Stewart and Nolan's review of the literature on middle schooling (mainly from the US and the UK) led them to suggest that the middle school model be adopted as "the preferred form of schooling for emerging adolescents in New Zealand" (Stewart & Nolan, 1992, p. ii). They made three recommendations. The first was that three to four year middle schools be seriously considered as a more appropriate form of schooling than the existing structural arrangements. Second, wherever practical, middle schools be established as independent entities and not attached to other schools. Third, they recommended that whenever a change of school structure was considered by a community, the parents, pupils and teachers be fully informed about literature regarding the organisation of middle schools (Stewart & Nolan, 1992, p. iii- iv).

In the aftermath of the effects of Tomorrow's Schools and the consideration by many schools to extend their range of classes, Stewart and Nolan's (1992) findings have become widely quoted by schools seeking justification for reviewing their class span and by the NZISMA who are obvious promoters of middle schooling. A subsequent paper (Nolan, Brown, Stewart & Beane, 2000) updated the research into the key aspects of effective middle schools. These two papers have provided a catalyst for debate about the current issues of middle schooling, particularly those associated with the restructuring of intermediate schools into three or four year organisations. Issues associated with restructuring are discussed in a later section.

Middle Schooling in the 1990s: Education and the 'New Right'

As explained above, the possibility that intermediate schools could translate to three and four year middle schools was attributed to the opportunities afforded by the 'Tomorrow's Schools' reforms of 1989 and the 1989 Education Act. The original notification that allowed the establishment of middle schools in New Zealand was contained in Statute under Section 153 of the Education Act, 1979 (Appendix 2). Section 153 described the Minister of Education's ability to change the "class" of an existing school to that of a "composite" school (p. 137). A middle school is a composite school because it contains both primary and secondary enrolments. The basis for this sort of reorganisation and other reforms was couched in the policy of the incoming Labour government in 1984 and the 'New Right' Treasury policies of the time (Olssen & Matthews, 1997).

Quite what were the reasons for the emergence of the reforms in education has received varying interpretation by writers. Some regarded the changes as following those already occurring in the US and the UK where there had been a move towards

decentralisation of education (Lauder, Hughes & Brown, 1991). Others saw the changes as the government's response to their inability to fund education at a time of economic crisis (Codd, Gordon & Harker, 1990). Other explanations have suggested the changes as a means for the government to retain control of education without having total responsibility for it (Nash, 1989). Whatever the explanation, by the end of the 1980s, Treasury policy had a direct influence on education. This was clearly evident in a Treasury paper in 1987, entitled, *Government Management: Brief to the Incoming Government, Vol. II: Education Issues*. The paper's recommendations appeared to be based on the theme that Education could be analysed in a way similar to any other service. It suggested that Education should be more responsible to business interests and the needs of the economy. It stated that the Education system had performed badly because teachers were not responsive enough to consumer interests and desires and that the system lacked a rigorous system of accountability. There was a lack of national monitoring procedures or any satisfactory way of comparing the effectiveness of schools. Much of this had occurred because government control and intervention had contributed to increased expenditure and this had caused inefficiencies and interrupted the 'natural' freemarket development between producer and consumer (Codd & Gordon, 1991).

It is not surprising that these suggestions were variously labelled 'neo-liberal' (Rustin, 1989), 'new right' (Apple, 1991; King, 1987) or 'market-driven' and 'market-liberalism' (Codd & Gordon, 1991). Commentators referred to it as the 'market model' (Snook, 1994) or the 'education quasi-market' (Glennerster, 1991; Le Grand, 1991; Thrupp, 1997).

These writers reflected international thinking on the marketisation of education. Among the views expressed were that the welfare state was not able to adequately

distribute national resources (Le Grand, 1991), and that New Zealand, like most western countries, had an unequal distribution of educational opportunity in relation to class, race and gender (Codd, 1988). The middle classes were consuming a disproportionate amount in terms of per capita share of state-provided resources and services, including education (Olssen & Matthews, 1997). This was in contrast to previous government education and social policy.

Prior to the 'Tomorrow's Schools' reforms, New Zealand had a centralised system of state education (Gordon, 1997). In a hierarchal form of structure, it was dominated by the New Zealand Department of Education, which administered regional Education Boards (for primary schools) and secondary school Boards of Governors. As part of the primary school system, intermediate schools were administered by the Education Boards. These were responsible for the dissemination of policy for the Department of Education, the appointment and promotion of teachers and the distribution of resources. This system was removed by the 'Tomorrow's Schools' reforms of 1989. There were a number of key aspects of the reforms. Amongst those that were of particular relevance to this study were that, first, the Department of Education was abolished and replaced with a smaller, Ministry of Education. The central Ministry, supported by four regional agencies, was responsible for accountability, qualifications and assessment, special education and teacher education. Second, all regional Education Boards were abolished. Their functions were largely devolved to schools. Finally, new Boards of Trustees were set up to govern each school. These consisted of elected parents, a staff representative, the principal and, in secondary schools, a student representative (Gordon, 1997).

This system represented a devolution of power from the central controlling body, the former Department of Education, to parents and schools. As such, it represented the "community empowerment" philosophy of the Labour government (Gordon, 1992, p.

12) and encouraged parents to become more actively involved in decisions regarding the type of schooling that should be offered in their community (Lee & Lee, 2000). Provisions within the 'Tomorrow's Schools' reforms also offered an opportunity, amongst others, for middle schools to become established. The reforms focussed on five areas of reorganisation. First, the state would largely continue to fund, and to some extent provide, services, but as far as possible the education system would be subjected to choice and competition. These would be guided by market-led forces rather than a centralised bureaucracy. Second, apart from teacher salaries and some deferred maintenance, schools (i.e. Boards of Trustees) would have complete control over their budgets. Additionally, schools could buy services from the private sector, borrow money and fund capital development. Also, school funding would be on the basis of student numbers. In order to maintain or improve funding levels, schools would need to maintain or increase pupil numbers. Finally, as a result of new Ministry of Education policy, community education forums were to be established to allow committees to decide which kind of education best suited their community. These became known as Education Development Initiatives (EDIs) (Bates, 1987; Dale, 1989; Lauder, 1994; Snook, 1994; Gordon, 1997). EDIs were a Ministry of Education policy, based on Circular 1992/8 (Appendix 3), which aimed to improve the educational opportunities for pupils in a particular area by having the Ministry of Education work with local school communities to reorganise the educational provisions there. EDIs offered a means of effecting educational change in any particular educational zone. The process of change usually began with school Boards of Trustees considering whether the types of school in their area were the most effective for providing long-term, quality education. If an opportunity for improvement was obvious, the school Boards of Trustees worked with the Ministry of Education and the community to effect this. In the

case of the Hamilton Middle School, the need for change arose from parents wanting provision for secondary education in their area (Strachan et al., 1995). The process, under an EDI, included a review of parent opinion, the development of a submission to the Minister of Education and, once approval was gained, making changes in the school.

It was the EDIs that allowed school Boards of Trustees to review their clientele base in terms of the age spans that they might accommodate. From the Hamilton Middle School Board of Trustees' perspective, they provided the catalyst for an application to the Ministry of Education to retain their Year 8 pupils and expand into a middle school (Strachan et al., 1995).

An explanation of schools in New Zealand that accommodate Years 7 to 10 pupils is included in Appendix 4.

Persistent Issues Associated with Middle Schooling

Issues concerning middle schooling remain and attract ongoing discussion. Some are directly relevant to the reforms of 'Tomorrow's Schools', others more remotely linked. For example, whether transition between schools is relieved by changes in school structures warrants continued attention. As far as pupils are affected, ease of transition may be largely dependent on the degree of liaison between contributing schools and their local secondary school. The Education Review Office recognised the significance of transition when, in a 1994 report, it stated, "These transition phases are an important issue. Schools acknowledge that organising smooth transitions between schools has distinct advantages both for the school and the student (Education Review Office, 1994, p. 5). Presumably, it can be assumed that when an intermediate school recapitulates to a Year 7 to 10 school and thereby delays transition for some pupils to their secondary school, it has a significant effect on the pupils. The reforms associated with the 'New

Right' movement and 'Tomorrow's Schools' gave schools a greater opportunity to change their structure than had been possible under former policies. As a result, there are an increased number of transition paths that a pupil may take to secondary school. Quite what the effects might be in one of these paths, that of a Year 10 to 11 transfer, became a major part of this research study and is the focus of Chapter Seven.

The continuity of curricula is also an issue associated with the reforms of the 'New Right' movement. The development of Year 7 to 10 syllabuses in the 1970s were useful in providing continued programmes of instruction between primary and secondary schools (Education Review Office, 1994). The 1989 reforms introduced the national achievement objectives of the New Zealand Curriculum, in which each section contained defined subject strand objectives. As a result of the 'New Right' reforms, Boards of Trustees were required to review, redesign and implement learning programmes based on the underlying principles of the New Zealand Curriculum. As the reforms allowed changes in school structures, they also created the potential for discontinuity in both curriculum content and its delivery between, for example, a middle school and that of a secondary school. Continuity of curriculum was also addressed in this study and is included in Chapters 7 and 8.

The education reforms offered the opportunity in 1997 for over 20 applications to be made by intermediate schools' Boards of Trustees to the Ministry of Education for permission to establish middle schools. This could be regarded as surprising at a time when media reports suggested that there was greater stress on teachers than before and that schools needed greater community funding than before. In this climate, change in a school's structure such as the translation from a two year to a four year programme may conceivably have necessitated greater strain on those resources.

Summary

A review of the literature suggested that middle schooling emerged as the result of a range of demographic, historical and social factors. Features of middle schooling that developed in those countries where it was a recognised and acceptable form of schooling were largely as a result of shortcomings with the existing system. These included the inadequacy of the junior high school model, an inability of some administrations to cope with the increasing numbers in the middle school age group and the failure of schools to meet the particular requirements for the schooling of preadolescent pupils. As a result, revised provisions for middle schooling emerged. Commensurate with the development of middle schools was a plethora of reviews concerning their adequacy; certainly a feature of intermediate schooling in New Zealand. But research into middle schooling has received varying attention. For example, in New Zealand, the curriculum for Years 7 to 10 has received ongoing reviews and updating. Also, the transition role of intermediate schools between the larger primary and secondary schooling has been well recognised.

What has received scant attention has been the effects of school organisation and curriculum delivery in situation where a two-year intermediate school recapitulates to a four-year middle school. For example, while the evidence from overseas and New Zealand research indicated that effective programmes for 10 to 15 year-olds were characterised by interdisciplinary teaching teams and a degree of balance between generalist and specialist teaching, how this affected the middle school clientele has received little attention. One reason for the paucity of information in the New Zealand middle school setting was that four-year middle schools were an innovation. If middle schools became a feature of New Zealand schooling, what comprises useful organisational patterns and methods of curriculum delivery, warranted attention.

A related characteristic of the middle schools' transition role was their preparation for secondary schooling. This was well recognised in the literature. However, the effects on pupils who might choose to experience a four-year tenure, rather than a two-year term at the middle school, have not been researched. The paucity of research in this area prompted a further avenue of research in this study.

The perspectives of the onlookers, the parents, was rarely described in the literature. As it was assumed that parents played a major part in determining whether their children entered secondary school at the end of Year 9 or Year 11, it would be reflected in the literature. This was not the case.

The issues of the effects of the type of curriculum delivery that was appropriate for middle schools, or whether delayed transition to secondary school was advantageous or whether there was a difference in the educational opportunities offered by middle and secondary schools, were obvious shortcomings in the literature. These are reflected in the research questions.

The next chapter reviews theories of change and the significance of these in school reorganisation.

CHAPTER 4

THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Introduction

In this chapter, different theories of change are discussed in terms of their purpose for this study. Change is viewed as the rationale or perspective for describing methods of intentionally altering an institution, or changing its function. Where the focus for change in terms of scale tends to be applicable to one institution rather than a blanket coverage, it is categorised within change theory as a theory of school improvement. Alternatively, approaches that include the more bureaucratic attempts at change and which operate on a large scale, are regarded as systemic. Both offer knowledge about processes and outcomes, but differ in their scale of application. Theories of change that offer a perspective for viewing all institutional change, a way of viewing processes and outcomes, are regarded as belonging to the Perspectives theory. As the Perspectives theory was thought to be most appropriate for this study, it was adopted as the basis for describing school change.

In this chapter, each theoretical approach is described and evaluated in terms of its usefulness for describing change. First, some relevant definitions and classifications of change are offered.

Definitions and Classifications of Change Theories

In an educational context, change is usually associated with the intention of altering or improving something (Lehming & Kane, 1981). In this study, the focus was on change

in a school context, the transition from a two-year intermediate school into a four-year middle school.

Lehming and Kane (1981) defined change as “an intended alteration in existing policy or practice or the intended introduction of a policy or practice that is new to the district” (p. 10). Various interpretations of this statement are possible. Apart from the context-dependent use of the term ‘district’, other questions arose. For example, was an ‘intended’ introduction of policy likely to effect change when there were no outcomes from the intention and thereby no change? Was ‘policy’ a necessary corollary of change? In the literature on change, the term became imbued with value, often associated with other, context-dependent, terms such as ‘motivation’ for change (Gross, 1979), ‘process variables’ (Yin, Quick, Bateman & Marks, 1978), or ‘multiple implementations’ (Berman & McLaughlin, 1977).

For some commentators, such as McPhee and Phillip (1985), change theories could be simply categorised according to the source for change; “natural” or “deliberate” (p. 12). Natural change occurred when personnel changed. Deliberate change was purposefully directed. Miles (1981) classified change into three divisions, according to the strategies employed. One division included power-oriented and solution-oriented approaches. Here change was effected by the hierarchy and structure of the organisation. Another division related to relationship and attitude, change-oriented approaches. This occurred when change was focussed on the members of an organisation. A third category included problem-solving and process-oriented strategies. This applied when change was driven by external factors.

A survey by Grenier (1978) identified seven theoretical approaches in frequent use when changing organisations. One approach was the decree approach. This related

to situations where one person or group decreed that change will happen. Another category, the replacement approach, applied where a new person was brought in to effect changes. The structural approach focussed on the reorganisation of relationships within an organisation. The group decision approach applied where members of an organisation cooperated to effect change. A data discussion approach would be used where data about the functioning of an organisation was brought to members for review. Another classification was the group problem-solving approach. This was used when internal groups diagnosed and collected relevant information about a problem. Finally, the T-group approach emphasised developing interpersonal trust.

A similar classification of organisational change to Grenier's, which also included a gradation of power and involvement, was that of Walton (1985). Walton suggested that processes of planned change could be categorised into those based on power, on love and trust and those related to problem solving. A possibly more encompassing classification was offered by Chin (1967). He grouped all programmes for change according to the strategies employed. The first included the empirical-rational types, where the fundamental processes were based on reason and utilitarianism. A second group included the 'normative-reduction' types where attitude change was the focus. The third grouping was based on "power in some form with compliance" (p. 44). Chin has suggested that a classification of this type can encompass the subsumed issues of size and type of target, objects and people, the mode of entry and the immediate and long-range effects of change.

It might be suggested that, common to all the above systems was their focus on improving an organisation and a focus on problem solving, where training was a means and improved performance was expected as a result. There was a significant emphasis

on organisations and structures, possibly at the expense of an understanding of the culture of an organisation. Some change theories are now discussed in detail.

School Improvement Theories of Change

The literature suggested that one focus of change theories is school improvement (Fullan, Miles & Taylor, 1981; Hopkins, 1994; Miles, 1981; Prebble & Stewart, 1984; Purkey & Smith, 1983; Schein, 1985; Sparkes, 1996). Such theories were based on paradigms that described how a school or institution might make planned changes for improvement. These usually involved a description of a series of stages through which the change process operated. The final stage often included a method of monitoring outputs in terms of the objectives for the change. In this way, the change was often driven by a sense of purpose or the need to fulfil certain outcomes. The process of change was linear, with identifiable stages. Miles (1981) regarded some of these terms, such as “goal diffuseness” as being the “illustrative common properties” of schools (p. 42). Typically, each phase or planned stage was labelled. For example, the first stage was often called ‘initiation’, which was alternatively characterised by labels such as ‘mobilisation’, ‘orientation’ or ‘goal setting’. This stage might result from dissatisfaction with the existing situation and prompt the discussion and formulation of goals. In the Westtown study (Rossman, Corbett & Firestone, 1988), the researchers’ descriptors of this stage included terms such as “widespread despair” (p. 64) and “unsettled feeling” (p. 65). Outcomes of this phase often include the definition of a new practice and teacher reflection on how it will affect them.

The second phase, 'implementation', was also characterised by labels such as 'practice' or 'effecting the change'. Implementation often included establishing clear goals and monitoring procedures and staff development sessions. One researcher, Weindling (1989), suggested that outcomes in the goal-setting phase usually included reflection on how to carry out change, questioning how change would be accommodated in an existing structure.

The third and final stage, 'institutionalisation' (Weindling, 1989), was also characterised by labels such as 'inclusion', that indicated the accommodation of the change in the institution. Outcomes included the impact of the changes; for example, was students' learning improved? Did the changes allow better communication or management?

School Improvement from a Cultural Perspective

Some school improvement theories of change focussed mainly on the school's culture and viewed change as necessitating the reshaping or recreating the values in a school (Purkey & Smith, 1983; Sparkes, 1996). In a cultural approach to school improvement change, researchers adopted varying emphases on some of the factors that affect school culture, history, organisation, or values. Hopkins (1994), for example, combined both organisational and cultural factors in change by describing its purpose as being to "... enhance student achievement and strengthen the school's capacity [to] manage change" (p.68). Hopkins also stressed the "importance of the culture and organisation of the school as key factors in sustaining teacher and school development" (p. 68). Weindling (1989) commented that a change in school culture could be seen from an historical viewpoint and include both educational innovation and also the study of effective

schools. Prebble and Stewart (1984) described planned change in a school as including “how a school makes overt the prevailing beliefs, values and norms of its population” (p. 56). They linked change with shared problem definition and therefore viewed a school’s culture as being an important component in the change. Other studies, such as Rossman, Corbett and Firestone’s observations of change in their ‘Westtown’ school study (1988), pointed out that not all school improvement efforts involved cultural change. They suggested that change could be primarily technical and/or political as well, as other authors have noted (Corbett & Rossman, 1989; House, 1981; Rossman, Corbett & Firestone, 1988; Tichy, 1983). Rossman, Corbett and Firestone (1988) suggested that cultural change resulted from normative challenges. In the Westtown study, attempts to effect change in curriculum development and teaching methods were not at odds with the existing ideas of what was appropriate teaching or management behaviour. The changes, in these areas, did not challenge the culture of the school.

School Improvement Theories from a Management Perspective

Some descriptions of school improvement focused on how change was managed. This research went beyond the identification of characteristics to enquire how management factors that influence school change operated and how they might be implemented. For example, some researchers such as Clark and Astuto (1984) and Wayson, de Voss, Kaeser, Lasby and Pinnell (1982) drew the threads of school improvement and the management of change together. Other researchers identified processes that were fundamental to successful improvement. For example, Fullan (1985), identified four processes that were necessary for change. The first was a feel for the improvement process on the part of those in leadership. Second, there had to be a guiding value

system behind any change. Third, there had to be intense interaction and communication. Finally, collaborative planning and innovation should feature. The focus was on the processes of change, rather than delineating characteristics and ranged from the innovation of a new programme, (for example, implementing a new Mathematics programme in a school) to a whole school focus on improvement.

Much of the research on the process factors of school improvement had implications for how 'efficiency' is measured. Fidler, Russell and Simkins (1997) and Simkins (1994) suggested that changes in education that included moves to make schools more responsive to their 'clients' (as was evident in many western countries in the 1990s), implicitly generated different perspectives about efficiency. For example, efficiency might be perceived in terms of the needs and priorities of the governing body and the principal. However, it could also be viewed in terms of the needs of the schools' pupils, parents and community, including employers. In a New Zealand setting, the overriding expectations of the national curriculum and the teachers' interpretation of this in terms of the needs of their pupils, could be added (Simkins, 1994).

One outcome of school improvement programmes based on revised management procedures has been the attempts to quantify educational provisions or allocations. This was most evident in the emergence of formulae as a basis for allocating educational resources. For example, in the UK, this prompted the development of "age weighted pupil units" (Simkins, 1994). Additionally, consideration has also been given to the criteria for weighting of schools with special needs or socio-economic disadvantage (Thomas & Bullock, 1992). In Michigan an equation for "regression analysis" was used to identify the "efficiency rating" of schools (Hough, 1993, p. 41). In the New Zealand

setting, the allocation of bulk funding is based on a formula issued by the Ministry of Education (Ministry of Education website www.minedu.co.nz, Item 209).

While attempts to objectify school improvement may be fraught with difficulties, some researchers suggested that such approaches have encouraged schools to clarify their objectives and priorities and to plan how to achieve and monitor these (Hargreaves, 1994b; Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991). Others suggested that changes in government educational policy make such planning difficult (MacKinnon & Brown, 1994), especially when policies encouraged a causal relationship between school inputs and educational outcomes (Fullan, 1985; Reynolds & Cuttance, 1992; Reynolds, Hopkins & Stoll, 1993). Furthermore, as Wallace (1985) warned, it might be dangerous to generalise about concepts such as development planning when these meant different things in different school contexts. Carlson (1965) called this the “domestication” effect in situations where schools were strongly influenced by the expectations of the school parents (p. 47).

The literature suggested that change theories based on school improvement and efficiency offered an approach that was suited to decentralised school management. They were useful in describing school change in situations that were context-dependent and where change was related to a range of locally-derived economic and quantifiable principles. Recent research has broadened the field to include school culture and the management of change.

Systemic Theories of Change

Theories that focus on systemic change involved working with systems on a large scale. They were also characterised by clear linkages within the organisation and

acknowledged that change in one area within an organisation affected other areas. The structures might operate in a vertical, linear manner and were typically found where policy was to be implemented on a large scale, or in a non-hierarchical situation where policy was adopted across a broad front. For Holzman (1993) systemic meant “working with school *systems* - district bureaucracies or state departments of education - to effect change” (p. 18). He regarded systemic change as, “... fundamental change, affecting every aspect of our schools and every school in our school system, change from the statehouse to the classroom” (p.18).

Within theories of systemic change, the scale of the implementation of change was obvious. The approach assumed that educational improvement must consider the whole range of school issues, from student assessment to school funding. It acknowledged that the effects of change in an area could not be limited to that area (O'Neill, 1993). For example, improvements in curriculum delivery also involved resource development, assessment, budgeting and parent communication. The systemic approach might be described as holistic as it involved developing policies for all systems in all schools across large areas of school administration. In this approach, the school systems themselves were at issue (Holzman, 1993); a contrast to the more localised approach of the smaller scale, school improvement effectors of change.

Like the school improvement approach, those who adopted a systemic approach used phases or stages through which change was effected. One model offered by Anderson (1993) suggested six stages. The first involved the maintenance of the old system, where educators maintained a system as it was originally designed, unaware that it was not appropriate for changed conditions. From this developed an awareness stage, where the participants became aware that the system was not working as well as

it might. A third stage was that of exploration. This was where the policy makers visited places that were trying new approaches. This was followed by transition, where a necessary number of participants committed themselves to a new system. From this emerged a new infrastructure, where some elements of the new system were working. Finally, there was a predominance of the new system. At the same time, innovators of change began to envisage an even better system. These stages had a certain similarity with those envisaged by investigators of school improvement theories. The difference was one of scale. Both however, were attempts to describe change in a form of logical sequence.

By the very nature of its large scale, changes effected by a systemic theory often required a method for monitoring the change. An example of this was Anderson's (1993) use of a matrix or a continuum of systemic change. In this example, the matrix comprised the use of six 'elements', including, vision, public and political support, networking, teaching and learning changes, administrative roles and responsibilities, and policy alignment (Anderson, 1993). Anderson suggested that those who apply a systemic approach may use a matrix to monitor development. She claimed three advantages for using a monitoring matrix. The first was that it enables the development of a common language and conceptual picture of goals and processes; those involved are better positioned to see the perspectives of the others. Second, for those overwhelmed by the large-scale of a task, the matrix specifies what steps are to be taken next. Thirdly, the matrix provides a basis for deciding the focus of evaluation, especially in providing a more comprehensive perspective of the changes (Anderson, 1993).

Some commentators such as Hargreaves (1994b) supported a systemic approach to monitoring changes in education because a more school-based approach didn't address the wider issues, and also because reforms in education during the 1970s and 80s, particularly in the US, did not appreciate that improvements could not be mandated by bureaucratic control.

Tinkering and quick fixes within the bounds of the existing system, it seemed, could not bring about significant improvements even in terms of the basic skills and academic achievements that comprised the traditional goals of schooling.

(Hargreaves, 1994b, p. 48)

This viewpoint was supported by Sarason (1990) who was also critical of a piecemeal approach to change and who advocated an integrated approach, one that affected all systems within a school.

What was needed, according to commentators such as Hargreaves (1994b) and Sarason (1990), was reform on a scale that replaced the traditional minimal competencies and basic skills approach of the bureaucratic reformers. They suggested competencies that would be more appropriate to meeting the changes of an increasingly flexible and global society. These would include, problem solving, higher order thinking skills, risk taking, teamwork and cooperation.

This probably highlighted one of the features of a systemic approach that policy makers and implementers should be wary of; that of its usefulness in a situation where education was bureaucratically controlled. A systemic approach was useful in implementing policy on a widespread scale, but where its philosophy was at the whim

of the bureaucrats the ensuing change might not necessarily reflect the needs of a changing society. In a school improvement approach, change on a smaller scale might more readily respond to the particular needs of the school's community.

Schleghty (1990) also supported the need for those using a systemic approach to change to be aware that changes in schools' structures should reflect societal needs. Schleghty, like Sarason, saw that a promotion of new skills and qualities was required in order to suit a changing and threatened social world. Schleghty (1990) suggested there was also a need for members to be able to function as a community of workers:

... the conditions of work will require one to learn to function well in groups, exercise considerable self-discipline, exhibit loyalty while maintaining critical faculties, respect the rights of others and in turn expect to be respected (p. 39).

Schleghty (1990) advocated strong leadership as a component of restructuring, which was a view of power and leadership quite different from Sarason's (1990) more democratic approach. Both researchers made reference to the political, social and communal implications of change. These included, for example, how members might respond to a changing social situation such as the move to a new housing estate. This was probably an added dimension to the systemic model that viewed change as essentially a response to a bureaucratic initiation.

Hargreaves (1994b) also acknowledged social variables when he described one of the tensions of restructuring as existing between the structural and cultural focuses of change. He viewed structural change as usually effected from outside the school, and which might ignore the existing culture within the school. The image was of a powerful,

determining structure being imposed on the deeply-rooted beliefs and practices of a group of teachers and students that make up the culture of a school. Hargreaves' ideas were supported to a certain extent by Werner (1991, p. 27) who saw "policy support strategies" creating a culture of collaboration where teachers worked together to effect change. The inference was that cultural changes were likely to be more effective in effecting long-term change than quick structural changes. Hargreaves suggested that both were complementary:

In some cases, especially in larger secondary schools, it is not possible to establish productive school cultures without prior changes being effected in school structures that increase opportunities for meaningful working relationships and collegial support among teachers. The importance of the structural option of restructuring, therefore, may be less in terms of direct impact on curriculum, assessment, ability grouping and the like, than in terms of how it creates improved opportunities for teachers to work together on a continuing basis. (p. 62)

Perspectives Theories of Change

Perspectives theories of change are characterised by the observer having adopted a particular viewpoint from which to describe and interpret the change. One method of observing and assimilating ideas about change was to sort them in terms of their general domains of interest; to classify these, to draw generalisations (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982) and then ascertain what could be implied for implementing school change. This was a taxonomic and generalising procedure. The interpretation of data depended on the perspective of the interpreter. Through a particular screen, one researcher might see

certain events that were different to those seen from a different screen. Examples included the constructivist approach and the social phenomenological approach. Theoretically, there were no limits to the number of perspectives that might exist.

House's Perspectives Theory of Change

House (1971, 1979, 1981) and House and McQuillan (1996) offered an explanation of how change might be observed and recorded. The theory assumed that the interpretation of a changing setting was dependent upon the type of lens (or perspective) the observer used. House suggested that each of three lenses, the technological lens, the political lens and the cultural lens, was necessary for an adequate interpretation and description of processes that operated as innovations developed. Each lens invoked a particular image, which in turn, suggested particular research questions for the observer. Furthermore, researchers other than House and McQuillan (e.g. Berman & McLaughlin, 1978; Corbett & Rossman, 1989; Fullan & Miles, 1992; Louis, 1992) have suggested that most research over the last few decades has used the framework of the technical, the political and the cultural perspectives from which to view school change, whether or not the planning was based on the three perspectives .

House's Perspectives theory was adopted in this study and an explanation follows of its three components; the technological, the political and the cultural.

The Technological Perspective of Change

According to House (1971, 1979, 1981), the technological perspective of change concerned the image of production. It primarily focused on how a task was done; the specification of goals and tasks and how effectively these could be achieved. Concepts

such as input-output, flow diagrams and performance objectives were commonly employed. Innovation was seen as a relatively mechanistic process (House, 1971). Social relationships in a changing situation were based on technological necessity. The concern was economic and the primary value that of efficiency. In a school setting, the technological perspective would be evidenced, for example, by charts and layouts of how a national curriculum was translated into teaching units. These would include details of the cumulative development of a subject area throughout the progression of classes.

House and McQuillan (1996) suggested that, from a technological perspective, anybody implementing change should attend to six necessary questions. These were based on what the change consisted of and how it will be achieved. They included:

- Will the change make any significant difference?
- How can teachers learn to do it, practise it safely, without undue risk?
- Is it much harder to do than current practice?
- If it is harder, how can it be made easier to implement?
- How does it fit with current routines? And
- What are the mechanisms for feedback to the teacher?

An initial critique might be offered concerning two aspects of the technological theory of change. The first was that school change, was characterised by the selection of the most effective means for a given end (House, 1981). Second, the theory suggested that solutions were techniques that were replicable and transferable to other situations. This implied that a technological remedy that had been successful in one school change situation, might be applicable to another. Why a technological solution

had to be transferable and why it could not be unique to a particular situation was not clear. Although the technological approach arose from the domination of a technological society, it need not be assumed that it was necessarily applicable to a wide distribution of settings.

The Political Perspective of Change

The political perspective of change encompassed the image of negotiation and the legitimacy of the authority system. It was about power, authority and the competing interests (House, 1971, 1979, 1981; House & McQuillan, 1996). Individual and group interests were conceived as often in conflict. Distribution of resources in a legitimate and acceptable manner was important. The concern was political and a primary value was the legitimacy of the authority system. For example, in a school, the political perspective may reflect the areas of administrative and curriculum responsibility for each teacher and their representation at meetings for these purposes. Again, House and McQuillan (1996) suggested that the researcher who adopted a political perspective, must necessarily attend to a set of questions that focus on the support and opposition for change. These included:

- What factions support it and oppose it?
- What are the political forces in favour of the innovation?
- What are the political forces opposed?
- Are the forces operating at the same level or in the same realm?
- Are the former stronger than the latter?
- If not, what are some likely political allies?
- Will the innovation itself create new political forces either for or against? and

- If so, how can these be dealt with?

Unlike the questions relating to a technological perspective, these related to political factions and how these were aligned. In a school setting they might relate to the nature of the power resources associated with groups involved in the change; for example, Board of Trustees members, teaching staff, and parents.

An initial critique of the political perspective of change, related to innovation being regarded as a matter of conflicts amongst factional groups. The tone of the political view implied a hierarchal implementation of policy from a central control, be it government, state or district. It was described as a vertical scenario, wherein innovation was sourced in a hierarchy and implemented in a top-down approach and often resisted by those in the schools it was trying to change. A review of the literature suggested that it is doubtful if the Perspectives theory ever envisaged change being initiated from a bottom-up scenario. This, however, was not to deny that the theory could not be applied to change other than that initiated bureaucratically.

The Cultural Perspective of Change

The cultural perspective of change reflected the image of community (House, 1971, 1979, 1981; House & McQuillan, 1996). People were bound to one another through shared meanings based on shared values. Supportive social relations were valued. Integrity of the culture was a primary value. Within a given culture, conformity to a culture's values might be important. Across cultures, tolerance of others' cultures was critical if cultural integrity was to be maintained. From a multicultural perspective, autonomy of separate cultures was paramount (House, 1971, 1979). This was reflected

in a set of research questions which, from a cultural perspective, House and McQuillan (1996) regarded as necessary for change to be successful. Each focussed on how change involved the members in collective efforts that led to common goals. They included:

- How does the innovation fit the school culture, including teachers, students, administrators and parents?
- Is this an attempt to change the school culture in a significant way?
- If so, can this be done over a period of time?
- How, and in what contexts, can the values associated with the change be modelled?
- What motivation is there for teachers and students to attempt such a change?
- With what other values and assumptions in the school culture might the innovation interact and change?
- How is it related to the culture outside the school?

House and McQuillan (1996) suggested that the above questions, along with those suggested for the technological and political perspectives, while not guaranteeing success for change efforts, were necessary for change to be successful and that school innovations that neglected them were likely to encounter significant problems.

According to Corbett and Rossman (1989), the three perspectives of change were more than useful lenses; they also depicted processes that actually operated in school change efforts. Moreover, these processes intertwined. For example, a problem viewed primarily as technical by the project leaders would inevitably have political and cultural implications for others in the school organisation.

House (1971, 1979, 1981) suggested that the three perspectives of change, the technological, the political and the cultural, also defined the range of possible arguments that one might have selected for a course of action. In research, each perspective set limits as to what was considered useful enquiry. For example, if one adopted the political perspective, arguments for and against a course of action would naturally be phrased in terms of the individual or group interest. Inquiry would include identifying whose interests were at stake. Arguments would be conducted within the political conceptual framework which might limit the number of value positions available to be assumed. In a school setting, the cultural perspective of change would reflect who was included in consultation. In a New Zealand school setting, for example, the cultural perspective of change might reflect the opinions of the Board or Trustees and inclusively, or separately, the Parent Teacher Association committee, individual parents and a Maaori perspective.

The Perspectives Theory and Educational Change

House (1979, 1981) suggested that educational innovations since the 1960s could be explained by the perspectives theory of change. Each dimension of the theory, technological, political and cultural, has provided a framework through which researchers, developers and officials have understood the innovation process and by which they have implemented new policy.

For example, House (1979) suggested that, from a largely political perspective, educational innovation in the US began with the backlash following the Russian launching of the Sputnik satellite and the subsequent call for reform of the curricula taught in schools. Initially, this resulted in a pedagogical overhaul of subjects such as

Mathematics, Science and English. These reforms were headed by university scholars who produced new curricula materials that reflected the structure of the parent discipline. The new Mathematics programme for example, included advanced topics and attempted to take an inductive approach to teaching, in accordance with current knowledge about scientific thought processes. The focus of the curricula reforms was to put revised teaching materials in front of teachers.

By the mid 1960s, in the US, the view of curriculum implementation being based on scholastic authority gave way to a more technological view of innovation; one characterised by a more systematic approach. Technology had become closely linked with innovation. Progress in the space technology, modern industry and agriculture was seen to be linked with technology and the processes of modernisation could be systemised and replicated (House, 1979).

It was not surprising when innovation in teaching was also perceived as technological by curriculum planners. The emphasis was less on improving the teaching as on finding improved methods of instruction and teaching materials that would facilitate more efficient learning. Explicit and replicable techniques were regarded as more significant in learning than the tacit knowledge of the teacher, especially those that had measurable outcomes. As a result, in the US, many research and development centres were established with the purpose of developing new teaching materials (House, 1981). In terms of change theory, the explanation of how learning could be reduced to a set of performance objectives and testable learning outcomes was probably best explained from a technological perspective. Certainly, attempts at education reform in the US during the 1970s and early 1980s illustrated this. In response to the demands from those in control of state education, publishers were able to produce a wealth of

learning materials. The use of learning and assessment materials was seen as a means of improving education (House 1981).

By the mid 1980s, these efforts were at an impasse. School administrators in the US were frustrated at the plethora of state legislation that aimed to improve education through raising the minimum competence of pupils (Cohen & Spillane, 1992; O'Neil, 1993). From a technological perspective, the focus on educational outcomes was having an undesirable effect. Some schools, unable to satisfy the system's demands for accountability, chose to avoid the reforms. Many school administrators saw contradictions in emphasis between states. Others saw little connection between individual pieces of legislation (O'Neil, 1993).

The change in US education policy in the 1990s can be explained by exchanging a technological lens for a political one. The US Department of Education implemented a systemic model of change wherein all schools would be supported in achieving a common aim to improve (Cohen & Spillane, 1992). A primary feature of achieving this was that schools would be offered a unifying vision of what education should be like (Smith & O'Day, 1991). Rather than focussing on solutions (a technological perspective) the emphasis would be on building the capacity of schools to renew themselves (a political perspective) (Fullan, 1985; O'Neil, 1993). Wagener (1993) referred to this as a change from "a reflexive reaction to outsiders" to support for "active citizenship" (p. 24). The political perspective was also evident in the support offered by the US Department of Education, to those groups involved in the change: school administrators, boards of governors, teachers and parents. For change to be effected, the factions involved needed to share a common vision (Smith & O'Day, 1991).

The political perspective viewed change within a school as a series of factional groups competing and cooperating within the system. One group might be an advocacy group supporting an innovation, which sought to convince others of its worth. Events were explained and interpreted in terms of the viewpoints held by different groups (House, 1974) or as a power struggle amongst individuals (MacDonald & Walker, 1976). Factions might align themselves along vertical divisions in the community. For example, one alignment of administrators, backed by a particular group of parents might have promoted one kind of programme; another faction might have opposed them and promote an alternative programme. As House (1981) described it:

... through the political perspective each group would be seen as having its own goals and interests, which often conflict with the purposes of the others. Cooperation on an innovation is viewed as problematic rather than automatic. Cooperation must result from negotiation and compromise.

(House, 1981, p. 23)

But House (1979, 1981) saw the most common use of the political perspective on change as being in the interpretation of interaction between the local, state and federal governments where power relationships had an effect on the implementation of innovations. From the 1980s, the political perspective became a major competitor with the technological perspective and this was reflected in the number of studies. Schlechty (1992) for example, drew attention to the difference between change agents who manipulated subordinates and those who motivated followers. Evans (1993) referred to managing multiple areas of interest through a shared sense of unity; “a clear,

compelling vision” (p. 22). House (1979, 1981) suggested that analyses conducted from a political perspective were applied in three ways. First, those that considered the direction in which social trends were drifting and which focused on questions such as, was society becoming more conservative? Second, innovations that were interpreted against a background of societal trends and asked questions such as, must curriculum reform be abandoned in the face of a return to basics? Finally those that included analyses of the role education played in society as a whole and which asked questions such as, did education seem to liberate or conserve?

The cultural perspective of change has increasingly been used by education researchers as a method of explaining change (Sarason, 1990). Initially, it was employed to study the effects of innovation but more recently it has been used to study the innovation process itself. From a cultural perspective of change, the different participants, for example, teachers or developers, are seen as different cultures or subcultures and the innovation process is perceived as the interaction of these differing cultures. House (1981) described it as:

Conflicts and misunderstandings were interpreted as conflicts in values. Teacher culture was often seen as distinct from the other cultures, such as researchers, parents, technocrats, or developers, who tried to change it. Many of these studies showed the subtle ways in which change efforts were absorbed without significant change occurring. Most studies were directed at the different “meanings” produced by the change efforts rather than at the change itself. (p. 25)

Bolman and Deal (1991) suggested that change may have a significant effect on the culture of a school. While change might raise hope amongst the incumbents, it also raised fears when it challenged competence and power amongst those involved. This resulted in confusion, the erosion of shared values and the loss of continuity and meaning (Bolman & Deal, 1991). Marris (1986) suggested that the primary metaphor for change was the loss of shared assumptions about how a group made sense of their world. Evans (1993) claimed that institutions, including schools, shared a culture of fundamental conservatism and that this shaped their response to change.

Researchers using a cultural approach to explain change tended to rely on more ethnographic methodologies, such as participant observation, ethnomethodology and case studies, which focussed on how people interpreted events. To this end the cultural perspective tended to be sympathetic to the recipient culture, the members who were most affected by change, rather than the innovators.

The Relevance of the Perspectives Theory for this Study

Why not use a Systemic theory to explain change?

Systemic theories of change are based on implementing systems. They usually operate on a large scale, are bureaucratically implemented and are comprehensive insofar as they encompass a range of issues. Like School Improvement theories of change, they involve a series of stages by which change is implemented. A typical study using a Systemic theory of change might include the implementation of a new national syllabus with the attendant teacher inservice courses and resource materials. On both the grounds

of scale and of bureaucratic implementation, a systemic approach was not suited to this study.

Why not use a School Improvement theory of change?

Two features of School Improvement theories of change are the focus on outcomes of the change and the series of lineal stages through which the change occurs (Miles, 1981; Sparkes, 1996). The paradigms on which School Improvement theories are based usually begin the lineal development with a stage that is characterised with dissatisfaction with the existing situation and often conclude with an explanation of how the institution has been improved (Weindling, 1989). In this study, a School Improvement theory had limited application insofar as the lineal development of a school might be explained in hindsight as a series of stages. It might also be used to explain the adoption of different management systems as a school grew in size.

But the 'improvement' of a school as envisaged by a School Improvement theory is not synonymous with 'development', or 'stages' with 'expansion'. The Middle School was a school in change and the stages for the change were not prescribed. While cultural change in the school might be described by the viewpoint adopted by Rossman, Corbett and Firestone (1988), it would not necessarily encompass the impact of the political and technological changes. This study required a broad-ranging perspective or series of lenses that would accommodate all aspects of change and which would be appropriate for viewing and explaining change.

Why adopt House's Perspectives theory?

The researcher considered that House's Perspectives theory offered an approach that might be useful for explaining the total range of developments during the expansion of the Middle School. The Perspectives theory also offered a variety of stances or lenses through which the change might be explained. This was apparent in the original explanation of the theory (House, 1971) and the subsequent applications of it (Corbett & Rossman, 1989; House, 1979, 1981; House & McQuillan, 1996). In the latter studies, it was apparent that different action strategies might be determined from the three perspectives. A technological strategy might concentrate on the development of an innovation and its proper employment in a school. Its focus would be on effective innovation and the proper skills to implement it. A political strategy might focus on the interests of particular groups, anticipating that the eventual success of the change would depend on how motivated people would employ it. A cultural strategy would include the values held by the teachers and how the innovation matched the existing school culture. The Perspectives theory offered a comprehensive approach because a researcher was able to position themselves anywhere within a three-dimensional space; each dimension (a perspective) being dependent but not exclusive of the others.

In addition, the Perspectives theory accounted for the vast majority of studies into change that have been conducted. To support this claim, House (1979) offered a set of questions which he regarded as necessary for observing and describing change. These were considered by the researcher to provide a useful framework for the present study into the development of a middle school and were included as part of one of the research questions.

Conclusion

Explanations of change might adopt different theoretical rationales, according to their purpose and setting. A review of the literature suggested that some approaches best served large scale, bureaucratically-implemented change. Others focussed on predetermined, developmental stages of the change process. Some seemed appropriate for explaining change from a management or cultural perspective. House's Perspectives theory was adopted for this study as being suited to a situation where flexibility of the researcher's lens was required. This multifaceted approach influenced the researcher's choice of methods. These are discussed as part of the description of the research design in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

THE RESEARCH DESIGN

Introduction

This chapter considers the five research approaches that were adopted in this study. All were based on qualitative methodologies and included interviews, case studies, observations, Q-Sorts and Picture Interpretation. Quantitative data was also derived from Q-Sorts and Picture Interpretation surveys in order to offer another form of triangulation.

In this chapter, the research approaches are discussed in terms of their research functions. The framework for the discussion is based on the characteristics of each, including different perceptions of objectivity, the processes used and the implications for validity, reliability, and triangulation. Finally, the application of the approaches to this particular research study is offered, together with the ethical considerations for the study.

The research questions were:

1. What changes occurred in the formal and informal cultures in a middle school during the movement from a two-year to a four-year institution?
2. How did pupils from the middle school cope with transition to a secondary school?
3. What were parents' views on the social and educational differences of children who transferred to secondary school at Year 9 and Year 11?
4. To what extent were the changes that occurred, explainable by a Perspectives theory of change?

Qualitative and Quantitative Research: parameters of two paradigms

Reviews of the characteristics of quantitative and qualitative research approaches cover a variety of perspectives. These range from polarised perceptions in terms of two contrasting paradigms, to those that view the complementary nature of each in terms of the purposes and content of the study. At the extremes, the view is of two disparate groups; what Rossman and Wilson (1985) referred to as the “purists” and the “pragmatists” (p. 2). From another viewpoint, Eisner (1982) justified both scientific and artistic approaches to qualitative research; an anathema to the purists who regard qualitative approaches as unscientific. “Purists” have claimed that the two method types are incompatible because each is based on a paradigm that makes different assumptions about the world and what constitutes valid research (Rossman & Wilson, 1985, p. 2). There must be a logical relationship between the principles inherent in the paradigm and the methodology employed. The principles relate to differing views about what is truth and reality and determine the objectives of a research study (Dobbert, 1982; May, 1993).

Some “pragmatists” (Rossman & Wilson, 1985) saw a more instrumental relationship between paradigm and methodology and also areas in which the two approaches might be combined. The complementary nature of each was more easily appreciated from a methodology/presentation perspective than it was from that which best serves objectivity. Therein lies both the basis for the differences of the approaches and the points of similarity. As Dabbs (1982) wrote:

Quality is the essential character or nature of something; quantity is the amount.

Quality is the what; quantity is how much. Qualitative refers to the meaning ...

while quantitative assumes the meaning and refers to a measure of it. (p. 32

Qualitative Research

The Paradigm

The separate and multiple uses of qualitative research make it difficult for researchers to identify a definition of it as a theory or a methodology. It is a naturalistic enquiry that employs a range of methods to describe people or processes in their natural settings (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; May, 1993). Qualitative research is founded on the notion of context sensitivity. It is based in ethnography and the belief that the particular physical, historical and social environment has a significant impact on what the incumbents think and how they act (Smith, 1988). Qualitative research is naturalistic. The information gathered is descriptive and usually written in the participant's own words (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982; Bogdan & Taylor, 1975). It often contains information about people and how they interact with others and their environment in their natural settings (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Richards, 1991). Behaviour therefore is interpreted within the larger context; an approach that views a multiple of realities, which as Firestone (1987) stated are "socially constructed through individual or collective definitions of the situation" (p. 10). The researcher using a qualitative approach is mind-dependent. For them, the perspective of the world is inevitably based on people's interests, values and depositions (Smith, 1988) so that interpretations of reality are shaped by the values and interests.

Objectivity

For the qualitative researcher, objectivity becomes reliant on social agreement. What is objective is that which is agreed on by observers/interpreters and is a question of values rather than the product of external reality. To this end, qualitative research designs tend to sound like common sense, as Richards (1991) explained:

... qualitative research is common sense; it's about knowing and understanding and trying to 'feel' and explore the complexity of human life. And it can be expressed without obfuscation or fudging phony designs or cute technical terms. (p. 40)

Qualitative research is inherently multimethod in focus (Brewer & Hunter, 1992), often, though not necessarily, employing a range of interconnected research methods (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). These may include, case studies, personal experiences, interviews, observations, "anything that describe[s] routine and problematic moments and meanings in individual lives" (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p. 2). As Middleton (1996, p. 7) quoted, "... qualitative research relies upon interpretation of observations or events that is totally subjective. There is no attempt made to subjectively encode data using pre-specified, rule-based procedures..."

Lincoln and Guba (1985), in referring to the establishment of the "truth value" (p. 290) of a study, offered four constructs that are particularly applicable to a qualitative approach; credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability.

Credibility refers to ensuring that the subject under investigation is accurately identified and described. The inquiry must be "credible to the constructors of the original multiple realities" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 290). The credibility (and thereby validity) of a study is enhanced if it contains detailed descriptions showing the complexities of variables and interactions, based on data derived from observed settings (Marshall & Rossman, 1989).

The second construct, transferability, refers to the applicability of one set of findings to another context. For the traditionalists, the generalisation of a qualitative study to other populations, settings and methods- that is, external validity- is a weakness

in the approach (Marshall & Rossman, 1989). To counter such challenges many researchers offer triangulation as a means of enhancing the generalisation of a study; that is, bringing more than one source of data to bear on a single point (Cohen & Manion, 1996; Denzin, 1978). Data from different sources can be used to “corroborate, elaborate, or illuminate” the research in question (Marshall & Rossman, 1989, p. 146).

Dependability, the third construct, refers to the researcher’s attempts to account for changing conditions in a study, as well as changes in method, as a deeper understanding of the setting is achieved. This construct negates the perception of a static, unchanging social world and acknowledges a qualitative/interpretive perspective in which the social world is always changing. This has significant implications for replication and reliability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Marshall and Rossman (1989) offered a response to criticism from the traditionalists regarding replicability and dependability. First, qualitative researchers can assert that, by their very nature, qualitative studies cannot be replicated because the real world is constantly changing. Second, researchers should keep thorough notes that record each research design decision and the rationale behind it and have these available for scrutiny. Finally, all research data should be kept in a well-organised, retrievable form so that researchers can make them easily available if the findings are challenged or another researcher wants to reanalyse the data.

A final construct, ‘confirmability’ is included in the concept of objectivity, the difference being that the responsibility of the confirmation of a study is moved from the researcher to the data itself (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Confirmability responds to concerns that the natural subjectivity of the researcher will shape the research. This has implications for the manner in which the researcher gains entry to the research setting, the controls for bias, and the methods employed. Several researchers have offered

methods for overcoming this, for example, having a research partner or a person who plays devil's advocate and critically questions the researcher's analyses (Marshall & Rossman, 1989). This could also include the discussion of biases in interest and theory (Marshall, 1985). Objectivity can also be preserved by practising different forms of note-taking (Schatzman & Strauss, 1973) or following the guidance of previous researchers to control for data quality (McCall & Simmons, 1989). Marshall (1985) also suggested that researchers' attempts to show the "trustworthiness" (p. 44) of qualitative data should adhere to standards that include discussion of conflicting hypotheses and the shared interpretation of observations.

To this end the qualitative researcher needs to pay particular attention to developing a sound rationale for their choice of methods. While this is applicable to any research situation, some researchers such as Marshall and Crossman, (1989) suggested that qualitative research does not enjoy the objective paradigms that quantitative researchers do. By its very nature qualitative research need not be concerned with this comparison. This issue, in part, stems from qualitative research being so often referred to in the negative; the 'other', non-quantitative sort (Richards, 1991). Again, this only serves to encase the discussion in a dichotomous setting. Denzin and Lincoln (1994) clearly stated that "Qualitative research is a field of enquiry in its own right" (p. 1). And Richards (1991, p. 40) suggested that the dichotomy is "both false and misleading".

Implications for reliability and validity

The qualitative approach to research views reality as mind-dependent and relies on agreement of descriptions through the checking and rechecking of investigators' interpretations with the participants or by amassing large amounts of field data. As

Smith and Heshusius (1986, p. 9) state, “The ultimate basis for such agreement is that the interpreters share, or come to share after an open dialogue and justification, similar values and interests”. The implications of this in terms of judging the value or ‘trustworthiness’ (Marshall, 1985) of qualitative research have been discussed above.

Validity is sought by the qualitative researcher in terms of interpreter agreement. Meaning, being mind-dependent, is found by matching descriptions with other descriptions, interpretations with other interpretations. The outcomes are influenced by the interests, values and purposes that the researcher brings to the observations. Therefore, the qualitative approach, it might be argued, need not strive for reliability or replicability. It offers an unique, field-dependent approach to research methodology (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Richards, 1991).

The interconnected feature of the qualitative approach also has significance for its flexibility and triangulation. Flexibility allows both the varied use of a range of research methods and the accommodation of emergent issues. This is not only important to the process but a necessary feature of it (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). Burns (1994) suggested that a researcher’s reliance on one method risks providing a limited account of complex realities. When diverse kinds of data support the same conclusion, confidence in their validity is increased.

The use of multiple methods, or triangulation, also reflects the qualitative researchers’ need to obtain an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under investigation (Cohen & Manion, 1996; Denzin, 1978; Fetterman, 1989; Fielding & Fielding, 1986). This combination of multiple methods, empirical materials, perspectives and observations in a single study is best understood, then, as a strategy that adds rigour, breadth, and depth to any understanding (Flick, 1998).

Quantitative Research

The paradigm

Quantitative methods are based on a positivist paradigm; one which holds that behaviour can be explained through objective facts and whose methods are designed to eliminate observer bias (Jacob, 1988). What is observed and reported are items that are undistorted by the researcher or the situation in which they are discussed. Researchers use formal instruments as the primary basis for data collection and transform the data collected into numerical indices of some kind in order to generalise reality. To this end, it can accommodate a range of social sciences, from the testing of formal mathematical models to comparisons in the field of cultural anthropology.

Objectivity

In the quantitative paradigm, what is objective is that which is part of the world of facts and which includes only those facts that can be reported independently of the observer. But objectivity to the quantitative researcher applies not only to the characteristics and objectives of an investigation but also to the nature of the investigative processes involved. There is an adherence to a series of established procedures which not only prevent the self from distorting the facts, but allows the findings to be duplicated by another researcher using the same instruments and skills. As Smith (1988) stated:

Objectivity means that findings must be acknowledged as the way things really are whether or not the investigator is interested in or agrees with what is found. Because the facts stand independent of the knower and can be known in an undistorted way, they must have a powerful constraining influence on our beliefs about the world. (p. 10)

Agreement about reality for the quantitative researcher resides in the duplication of results. In quantitative researching the facts serve to constrain beliefs. Facts and values are separate (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994).

A crucial element in the quantitative approach is that there is a correspondence between observer statements and reality. But Miles and Huberman (1984) warned that the traditional scientific approach was no longer sustainable as a means of objectivity. If a researcher acknowledges that an understanding of human behaviour comes largely from intuitions based on unstructured interactions in non-replicable contexts (Miles & Huberman, 1984), the validity of findings is impossible to determine. And, if one takes this alternative scientific approach to its logical conclusion, there may not be any social reality; only a personal social construct specific to a given context which has no finality in terms of meaning (a criticism that quantitative-oriented researchers could make of the qualitative approach).

Implications for reliability and validity

The quantitative researcher who views reality as being field-independent is able to rely on instrumentation to verify facts through, for example, the use of standardised tests and field-independent sampling procedures. If, as some researchers suggest (Brown & Dowling, 1998), empirical research is fundamentally concerned with the generalisability of verifiable facts to a wider empirical setting, then the objectivity of the data favours a quantitative methodology. Stake (1994a), however, suggested that, despite the advantages of the replicability of many fact-based studies, generalisation should not be regarded as a necessary part of all research.

If one adopts Smith and Heshusius' (1986) definition of validity as “a matter of accuracy of representation” and reliability as “a matter of replication” (p. 7) then the different approaches to what comprises validity and reliability necessitate distinctive techniques. Furthermore, a preoccupation with techniques serves only to polarise the approaches and to transform the perceptions of validity and reliability into procedural variations of quantitative enquiry. Nothing is gained by this. Neither is any purpose served by attempts to offer a convergent viewpoint on the basis that validity can be enhanced if qualitative research becomes more ‘realistically’-oriented (Smith & Heshusius, 1986).

Disparate views of validity and reliability will continue while they are viewed in terms of practices and procedures, especially those that make comparisons with a quantitative paradigm, rather than how reality is defined. If the two approaches view truth differently then each approach must adopt a different conceptualisation of reality. Borg and Gall (1989) for example, suggested that traditional quantitative methods are more suited to overt behaviour and less suited to aspects of life that are not directly observable, for example, cognitive processes. Royer, Cisero and Carlo (1993) supported this by suggesting that cognitive assessment procedures frequently employ both methodologies. Additionally, Davies (1996, p. iii) proposed that the research designs should go beyond the “cobbling together of incompatible ideologies” and should adopt a methodology that acknowledges that truth resides in no single data collection exercise and data collected are relative to the methods used to collect them. He suggested that “if truth is a possible construct, it will emerge from the overviewing of samples of verbal behaviour taken in a variety of contexts and situations, employing different methodologies” (p.iii).

Part of the dichotomy between quantitative and qualitative research methodologies is embedded in the notion that reviewers focus on the justification for one model, rather than on a rationale for the appropriateness of a methodology for a particular purpose. Implicit in some comparisons between the two paradigms is the notion that because qualitative research deals with 'soft' data, it needs to justify its reliability in terms of a quantitative paradigm. In turn, this diminishes the image of qualitative research as not being objective and replicable. However, many researchers today argue that qualitative research need not strive for reliability and replicability. It is an unique approach that is eminently applicable to the collection of data in settings that we could not understand without vivid, contextual accounts.

Both qualitative and quantitative research methods adopt similar concepts of the meanings of validity and reliability but the means or methods by which they are verified are quite disparate. As a result, because theorists hold differing views about the nature of reality, it is not surprising that there are a plethora of perspectives concerning which methodologies are best suited for observing and reporting events. The researcher's final choice of methodology and methods should reflect their research purpose(s) and the settings. Because the notion of objectivity is fundamental to approaches, it is not only the theoretical principles that have to be justified but also the approach or methods employed. For the researcher, the debate over the applicability of the different research techniques has been beneficial because it has produced an increasing range of justifications for the different methodologies. However, the researcher is still left with the responsibility of being able to justify their choice of methodologies for the particular setting and purpose.

Ethical Considerations

In any research study, particularly where people are involved, there is a professional obligation on the part of the researcher to adhere to guidelines of ethical rules and procedures. These guidelines relate to the subject matter of the study as well as to its methods (Burns, 2000). This, as Merriam (1988) explained, is largely dependent upon the researcher's own integrity, professionalism and personal accountability. However, the literature suggested that there are a number of significant ethical considerations that should be addressed when carrying out social science research (Burns, 2000; Spradley, 1979).

The first of these concerns the principle of informed consent. As Burns (2000) stated, "Participants must understand the nature and purpose of the research and consent to participate without coercion" (p. 18). A common practice is to have potential participants sign a consent form that describes the purposes and procedures of the research and the risks and right of withdrawal for the participants. In this study, consent from the parents and teachers was obtained by the schools's principal.

A second consideration is for the researcher to ensure the privacy and confidentiality of the data (Burns, 2000; Spradley, 1979). Subjects must be informed that confidentiality will be maintained. They should also feel confident of the researcher's commitment to privacy (Burns, 2000). The general strategy for protecting privacy is to use codes to represent individuals. In this study, each participant was assigned a code. (This is evident in the quotations in Chapters 6, 7 and 8). Transcripts and audiotapes were kept in a secure place and participants were assured of the confidentiality of their statements.

A third requirement is that the researcher should be open with the findings. A professional researcher should allow disinterested colleagues to review the research and

its implications, in order to assess its unbiased nature. In this study, the researcher readily encouraged feedback and comment from colleagues and wherever it was felt necessary, sought confirmation from participants that his interpretation of their comments was as they intended.

Fourth, the researcher should have an open agenda and be devoid of deception. Participants should be informed of the research process and any reports should be made available to them (Spradley, 1979). Lather (1986) suggested that the research process should be empowering for the participants. This is unlikely to occur in situations where the purpose for the study has been misrepresented or where the participants are unaware of the rationale for the study. In this study, the principal of the Middle School constantly explained the purpose of the research to the staff and parents. He encouraged questions from the staff and parents concerning its purpose and intermediary findings. He took opportunities at parent evenings, staff meetings and student council meetings, to invite questions and comments.

As explained in Chapter 1, this study followed a previous one at the Middle School (Strachan, McGee, Oliver, Ramsay, Ward & Winstone, 1995). Because ethical consent had been obtained for the study and, as this study was seen as a continuation of the previous one, approval was given. The principal at the Middle School undertook to attend to all the ethical liaison with the parents, teachers and pupils at the Middle School. He was aware that he could be identified from the data and consented to this.

The Methods Used to Collect Data

Introduction

As explained at the beginning of this chapter, the research design for this study was based mainly on qualitative methodologies. The qualitative approaches included interviews and observations, supplemented by three case studies. Additionally, Q-Sorts and Picture Interpretation surveys were used as a means of obtaining supportive information, but the derived data was quantified. For example, because Q-Sorts, rely on the respondents' judgments about predetermined value statements, they may be thought of as a qualitative methodology. Similarly, Picture Interpretive measures are semi-projective in nature and thereby also subjective. However, in this study, derived data was treated quantitatively. Discrete scores were obtained from both of these methods, and in the case of Picture Interpretation, subjected to statistical analysis.

The methods of data collection used in this study reflected Davies' (1996) support for the use of complementary methodologies. In both the Q-Sorts and Picture Interpretation surveys, quantitative analysis was used for the interpretation of largely descriptive data. In this way a methodology was used that heeded the warning of research analysts about reliance on any one method or on inappropriate methods and adopted methods suited to this particular task and situation. In this research study, all approaches were complimentary. This contravened Smith and Heshusius (1986) insistence that research should use either a quantitative or qualitative approach. They argued that the differences in principles and underlying philosophies make the two approaches incompatible. But other researchers such as Entwistle and Ramsden (1982), who took a more modified approach and saw advantages in combining the two methodologies, advocated supplementing data from one approach with data from another. Watkins and Hattie (1981) also complemented one approach with another in

their study of the learning processes of Canberra students. The results from both these research studies seem to support the view that the supplementing data from one method with that from another can be profitable in adding richness to the research and also by way of increasing validity when one set of results complements the other. It was this approach that was adopted in this study.

The Interview as a Method of Data Gathering.

The interview technique for data gathering includes a range of methods and purposes. These may vary from the highly structured, near-standardised questionnaire approach for obtaining pre-determined information to an unstructured, respondent-driven strategy. Burgess (1982) suggested that the span of interviews can range along a continuum with structured interviews at one end and unstructured at the other. Grebenick and Moser (1992) referred to the range as a “continuum of formality” (p. 16). Burns (2000) described the range of interviews as extending from the informal, which were more “conversational in style” (p. 411) to the “structured and standardised” (p. 424).

As a research technique, the interviewer needs to be aware of the flexible but necessary parameters implicit in using the interview approach; the influence of the conceptual baggage brought to the setting, the purposes for the interview, the possibility of subjectivity and bias and the need to adapt to changing circumstances within the research setting.

According to Cohen and Manion (1996), the interview technique can serve three purposes. First, it can be used as the main method of gathering information in terms of the research objectives, particularly in terms of knowledge, values and attitudes. Second, it may be used to test hypotheses or to suggest new ones or as an explanatory

device to help identify variables and relationships. Third, it can be used in conjunction with other research methods, for example to follow up unexpected results, to validate other methods or to enquire more deeply into a finding. Within these purposes the interview can take many forms

The structured interview is characterised by its specific schedule and the fixed order and form of questions. Cohen and Manion (1996) described these as formal interviews in which set questions are asked and the answers recorded on a standardised schedule. Burns (2000) suggested that structured interviews are characterised by every interviewee receiving the same questions in the same order. No flexibility is allowed to either interviewer or respondent. As this approach presumes that the domains of interest are predetermined, the technique has little applicability to an open-ended investigation and therefore to this study.

An unstructured interview approach may be used to provide opportunity for the user to probe and uncover new clues, to open up new dimensions of a problem in order to secure accurate, inclusive accounts from informants that are based on personal experience. Fontana and Frey (1994, p. 366) suggested that unstructured interviews may “be used in an attempt to understand the complex behaviour of members of society without imposing any a priori categorisation that may limit the field of enquiry”; what Spradley (1979) regarded as the interviewer’s desire to “understand” rather than to “explain” (p. 3). Burns (2000) described the rationale behind open-ended interviews being exhibited when, “... the only person who understands the social reality in which they live is the person themselves” (p. 425).

Cohen and Manion (1996) described unstructured interviews as “situations in which the respondent is responsible for initiating and directing the course of the encounter” (p. 287). Unstructured interviews were not seen as appropriate in this research context

because of the possibility that they might implicitly exclude the overarching research focus. It was considered that 'semi-structured' interviews reflected both the expected openness of the interview and an awareness of the purpose for the research study.

Semi-structured interviews are characterised by the interviewer's awareness that the interview is more than what Bell (1987, p. 72) regarded as an "interesting conversation", a term often used in literature to describe Piaget's (1970) interviewing technique. The interviewer is aware of a balance between "the interview being shaped by the respondents" (Grebenick & Moser, 1992, p. 16) or Cottle's (1972) "conversational approach" (p. 44) and that of the purpose for the interview. Schumacker and McMillan (1993) described the semi-structured or interview guide approach as being characterised by the topics being selected in advance but the sequence and wording emerging during the interview. This is similar to Burns' (2000) description wherein semi-structured interviews include a focus but do not have fixed wording or fixed ordering of questions. This enabled greater flexibility and permitted a more valid response from the informant's perception of reality (Burns, 2000). As Bell (1987, explained:

Freedom to allow the respondent to talk about what is of central significance to him or her rather than to the interviewer is clearly important, but some loose structure to ensure all topics which are considered crucial to the study are covered does eliminate some of the problems of entirely unstructured interviews. (p. 72)

In the semi-structured interview certain questions are asked but the respondent is given the freedom to talk about the topic in their own time. The interviewer needs to be able

to ask focussed questions and, if necessary, to probe for more information (Bell, 1987).

Spradley (1979) suggested that semi-structured interviews contained “ethnographic elements”(p. 58) and that they should contain a degree of ‘explicit purpose’ to give some direction to the interview. Other features were that they should include ‘ethnographic questions’ which operated at a descriptive level or a grouping level or to contrast information. Spradley (1979) offered examples of these. Descriptive questions enabled the interviewer to collect an ongoing sample of the informant’s language, for example; “Could you tell me what you do at the office?” or “Could you describe the conference you attended?” (p. 124). Such questions were similar to those ‘open-ended’ questions envisaged by Cohen and Manion (1996) as offering “no other restrictions on either the content or the manner of the interviewee’s reply” (p. 277) or Kerlinger’s (1986) definition of putting “a minimum of restraint on the answers and their expression” (p. 111). ‘Structural’ questions, on the other hand, enabled the interviewer to discover questions about domains, or how informants had organised their knowledge, for example; “What are the stages of setting up a three-classroom syndicate?” or “What does being a Mathematics resource teacher involve?” ‘Contrast’ questions enabled the interviewer to find out what the informant means by the terms they used. A typical contrast question often begins with, “What is the difference between....?” (Spradley, 1979, p. 60).

The use of interviews in this study

As it was expected that the semi-structured interview would comprise the major means of data collection, its use was given special attention in terms of subject and content. Interviews were both arranged and emergent. The former involved speaking with the

Middle School principal, parents, teachers and pupils, by arrangement. Emergent interviews were usually part of the participant observation in the Year 9 and 10 classrooms and often involved seeking pupil interpretation or response to the teacher's explanations and instructions. In this way, much of the data was gathered in casual, friendly conversations, into which were introduced what Spradley (1979) referred to as "ethnographic elements" as referred to above (p. 58).

The interview schedule

In this study the interview schedule was extensive, both in its longitudinal coverage, and its breadth of clientele. 177 interviews were conducted, in the period from the beginning of 1995 to April, 1997, mostly at prearranged times. These semi-structured interviews mainly focussed on the pupils' perceptions of their schooling (Appendix 5). As well, interviews with the staff, parents, including Board of Trustees members and the principal were completed. Interviews were both emergent or unplanned, or arranged. Unplanned interviews were often the incidental outcome of arranged interviews and included:

- Capturing the moment of a significant event in the classroom or school; for example, a pupil's change in attitude or an opinion relating to an event in the classroom at a particular time.
- Confirming evidence; for example, when one pupil offered an opinion about another pupil's response to a situation, the first pupil's opinion was sought.
- Seeking different perspectives of a current issue before it became outdated or stale; for example, in a situation where a specialist teacher may have taken a particular position about a class' attitude to a particular task, confirming evidence was immediately sought from a sample of pupils.

The arranged interviews for this study, which reflected the research questions, included:

With the pupils:

- Interviews with Year 9 pupils at the beginning of the school year, concerning their reasons for choosing to stay at the Middle School, rather than attend a secondary school, and their foreseen challenges.
- Ongoing interviews throughout the Year 9 and 10 years concerning the pupils' perceptions of their progress at the Middle School, their relationship with teachers and their social interaction.
- Pre-transition interviews concerning whether the Middle School experience had been as expected and identifying the foreseen challenges of attending a secondary school.
- Post-transition interviews concerning the transition to secondary school, the current challenges and frustrations of secondary school and reflective comment as to whether the Middle School experience had been worthwhile.
- Three pupils were chosen as case study subjects. These are discussed in Chapter Eight.

In all, 87 interviews were carried out with pupils, including 21 with those in the case study (Appendix 6).

2. With the principal

- Sixteen interviews with the principal focussed on how he perceived the social and educational progress of the pupils in Years 9 and 10, the extent to

which he perceived the goals of the middle school were being realised and his comments on emergent issues such as those concerning organisation and resources (Appendix 7).

3. With the teachers

- Eleven interviews were held with the teachers of the Year 9 and 10 classes concerning their challenges and frustrations, their perceptions of the scholastic and social development of the pupils and to offer confirming evidence of perceptions held by pupils. In the first year of the research study, this included one Year 9 class teacher and in the second year, one Year 10 teacher and two Year 9 teachers (Appendix 8).
- Other teachers' (both class and specialist) opinions were sought, over 19 interviews, concerning their views of the development of the middle school, the implications of having older pupils in the school and the use of resources. These totalled nine classroom teachers of Years 7 and 8 and three technicraft teachers (Appendix 9).

4. With parents:

- Six interviews were carried out with parents who were Board of Trustees members or who attended school functions such as Parent Teacher Association or Meet-the-Teacher evenings. In many cases, interviews at or after parent meetings were emergent, unplanned interviews but, because the principal had offered an opportunity for parents to talk with the researcher at planned school evenings, they are included.

- Nine interviews were carried out with parents who had initially enrolled their child at a secondary school for Year 9 but who later transferred the child to the Middle School. Six of the interviews concerned a case study pupil.
- Nine interviews were carried out with parents of pupils who moved into the Middle School district from another school community and chose to enrol their child at the Middle School rather than at a secondary school. Six of these interviews concerned one of the case study pupils.
- Eighteen interviews were carried out with parents of Year 11 pupils after their transfer to secondary school. Three of these included case study pupils. Additionally, in order to find an adequate sample of parents who had children, one of whom had attended the Middle School for Years 7 to 10 and another who had attended secondary school from Year 9, five parents from the concurrent Year 10 class were interviewed (Appendix 10).

The interpretation of interview data in this study

The purpose in analysing and interpreting research information is to describe and explain relations inherent in the data. The analysis is usually based on a set of “conceptually specified analytic categories” (Huberman & Miles, 1994, p. 431). Such categories can be arrived at inductively or deductively. The two approaches can be complementary.

In this study, the inductive emergence of categories occurred as the information was examined and analysed. New data, was sorted according to its content. Because of the volume and diversity of data in this study, it was decided that a categorisation system for sorting data would be appropriate. The researcher was initially influenced by

the “systematic network analysis” described by Bliss, Monk and Ogborn (1983, p. 84). This involved the development of a structured series of interrelated categories that classifies qualitative data while also preserving the essential complexity and subtlety of the material under investigation (Cohen & Manion, 1996). The particular application by Bliss et al. in relating categories was based on the concept of “relational network”(p. 84) or how categories can be related to each other. In this research study, an initial organisation of the data produced a framework of related categories. Under the inclusion of ‘school organisation’, for example, data was able to be grouped into categories including, ‘pupil comment’, ‘parent views’, ‘teacher perception’, ‘principal’s views’. The same sub-groups could be applied to the generic headings ‘social interaction’ or ‘schoolwork’. A review of this system suggested that the “network analysis” (Bliss et al., 1983, p. 84) was driven by the category system, rather than emerging from the data itself. To this end, it was decided to use a recently developed computer software approach developed in Melbourne by Qualitative Solutions and Research and called, Non-Numerical Unstructured Data*Indexing, searching and Theorising (Richards, 1998), hereafter referred to as QSR NUD*IST.

The QSR NUD*IST programme enables researchers to code documents in terms of text units. In this research study, all the interview data was reformatted by the programme into discrete text units, usually paragraphs and entered as nodes in the index system. The use of the programmes’ node browser enabled the researcher to code and revise the coding of the text units. These were organised within the index system into various “tree structures” of categories (Richards, 1998, p. 43) by iterative searches for key words or concepts and/or their synonyms. These searches were informed by both the researcher’s field notes and the emergent domains themselves (Burns, 2000; Hansen, 1999). In turn, this enabled the researcher to consider the relationship between

cluster nodes and their relationship in the overall structure. The nodes derived from the text searches are included in Appendix 11.

In this way, the index system or category structure reflected the researcher's thinking about the study and the organisation of the data. In turn, the sequences and patterns of the data provided the basis for writing the findings of the study in terms of the research questions.

Observation as a Research Method

Observation entails the systematic description of events, behaviours and artifacts in the social setting (Marshall & Rossman, 1989). Burns (2000, p. 411) suggested that observation is based on the assumption that behaviour is “purposive” and expresses deeper values and beliefs. Similarly, for Nelson (1992), observation offers the researcher an opportunity to learn about the behaviours and the meanings attached to them. Classroom observations are typical examples of observations used in a research study in education. Observations may range from highly structured, detailed notation of behaviour, to more diffuse, ambiguous descriptions of events and behaviours.

Patton (1980) formulated a continuum which expressed the degree of involvement a researcher may have in an observational setting. At one extreme is the full participant who is part of the daily life of the community being observed. At the other end is the observer who shuns involvement in social interaction and focuses on dispassionate observation. Within this continuum there were dimensions of ‘revealedness’, or the extent to which knowledge that there is a study occurring is known to the participant (Marshall & Rossman, 1989). There are obvious ethical considerations associated with the use of overt observation methods (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Taylor & Bogdan, 1984).

The researcher's role can also vary in the amount of time spent in observation. An intensive and extensive study requires more time in the setting and has greater significance for building trusting relationships with the participants. Barley (1995) warned that participant observation offers its own "emotional, social and moral difficulties" (p. 24) and that longitudinal observation might serve only to intensify such implications. He regarded obtaining the trust of the participants as only partly contingent upon familiarity and this may be affected by events over which the observer might have little control, for example, political alignments within an organisation. Nevertheless, obtaining the trust of the participants was a necessary corollary to effective observation.

However, the focus of an observation may change. As Layder (1993) suggested, observations might refocus from an observation of the participants and the dynamics of a particular social setting to the consequences of the experience. In this situation, the researcher might focus less on giving an account of the interaction in a setting and more on the participants' recollections and feelings about their experience. This might require seeking an informant's reconstruction of an event; either to confirm the researcher's own observations or, in the absence of the researcher's presence, through a semi-structured interview. Reconstruction of an event might also be used as a form of triangulation. This would occur when a researcher used one respondent's recollection of an event as confirming evidence of another respondents' version of the same event.

The use of Observation in this Study

The researcher negotiated access to the inaugural Year 9 classroom. The class teacher explained to the class the researcher's presence in the room. During the first observation sessions, a few pupils sought reconfirmation from the researcher concerning

his attendance in the class. This was followed by a stage wherein the pupils occasionally sought assistance from the researcher with their work. This developed into a reciprocal relationship where, following an observation, the researcher asked for explanations of individual pupils' learning activities and pupils sought help with their tasks. Thus, a complementary and integrative relationship developed between observations and interviews which is explained below.

Observations in the classroom setting were intended to record both the formal and informal cultures of the classroom, with particular reference to how it developed over time. Observations tended to focus around three areas; observations about what was happening in the classroom, obtaining evidence of emergent themes/domains of interest and noting changes over time and the development of particular characteristics.

After an initial familiarisation time, observations of how the classroom functioned included the researcher being seated at the back of the room and noting events in the classroom as jottings in a field notes notebook. These usually include jottings about a general purpose or focus of activity (for example, noting that the session was a Mathematics lesson), what the teacher was doing or expecting from the class, (for example, calling answers and asking pupils for explanations for the answers they'd written). These tended to be the formal culture of the classroom. What the pupils were doing, both individually or collectively, included both formal and informal responses and might include, for example, marking their books, checking with others, commenting to others about a result, asking questions of others or the teacher.

Second, observations of themes included noting events that recurred. Some of these became familiar ways of doing things in the classroom and were adopted as part of the classroom culture. Examples were friendship groups, who tended to respond to different teacher requests or expectations, and how individual pupils responded to

different teaching approaches. Teaching approaches observed were direct teaching methods, an inductive/discovery approach or, letting the pupils decide on how and what to learn.

As data concerning classroom events accumulated, it was sorted into emergent and often characteristic features of the class. Occasionally, in order to record a comparatively large volume of descriptive data or to record recurrent themes, the researcher briefly withdrew from the classroom to use a dictaphone. An example of a theme included the gradual development of confidence and independence within the class. Within this theme it was noted, for example, that one teacher responded to the more frequent behaviour challenges from an increasing number of students in the class by adopting a more formal approach to her teaching. Over the period of two terms, the class programme changed from a relatively pupil-centred, integrated approach to a teacher-dominated, subject approach. Another example, from Year 10, included the class's gradual rejection of a new Technology programme. Individuals' comments about the programme developed into group discussions and as more of the class indicated that they didn't value the Technology programme, they represented their opinions to the class teacher and the principal. These observations are included in the findings in Chapter Six.

The Complementary Roles of Observations and Interviews

There was a close relationship between observation and semi-structured interviews. Semi-structured interviews were used to seek explanations or confirmations of events that had occurred in the classroom. Reasons tended to include both the formal and informal cultures of the classroom. An example of seeking an explanation about the

formal culture might include asking a pupil, “How are you expected to find information on this topic?” The expected answer could include the range of resources available in the school. An example of an explanation of the informal culture might include questions that show a translation of the conventions for finding information in the school, such as, “Why do you choose to use the CD Rom for finding information about politics in Russia?” The answer might suggest that it was quicker and easier than using library references.

Confirmation questions were also used in different ways. One example might include seeking confirmation of the researcher’s interpretation of an observation, for example, “Do you find this task interesting?” Another use might include confirming the breadth of agreement, for example, “Which groups’ opinions do you agree with about the new Health programme?”

In terms of the research questions, all the above had relevance for ascertaining the culture of the classroom, that which Layder (1993) regarded as “the fabric and dynamics of situated activity” (p. 116).

Q-Methodology as a Research Approach

Q-methodology or Q-techniques is a rating procedure. It was developed originally by Stephenson in the 1930s to provide data for his personality studies. Personality items were “put in an order of representativeness (or significance) for the individual, those most characteristic of him (sic) being given high scores, while those least characteristic are scored low” (Stephenson, 1953, p. 367). Traditionally, the items were printed on cards and these were sorted into a distribution across a continuum (Block, 1961); what Kleinmuntz (1967) regarded as a “forced normal distribution” (p. 123). Correlations

amongst sortings may be subjected to factor analysis (Campbell & Stanley, 1963; Gorsuch, 1983; Kerlinger, 1986; Stephenson, 1935, 1953).

Originally, it was devised as an indicator of the extent to which test items correlated. But, in 1953 Stephenson produced an alternative use for Q-methodology. Rather than applying tests to a sample of persons, he proceeded from a position in which “persons are applied to a sample of statements” (Stephenson, 1953, p. 51). In this way it was the “persons”, or more accurately, their action upon the sampling of statements which would be correlated. Put another way, the data from the Q-sorting were what participants make of a pool of items about a particular topic, or the way they arrange the data. In practice, the items can be sentences or single words. However, photographs and other images have been used (Block, 1961). The ranking is arranged along a simple, face-valid dimension; for example a continuum of ‘most agree’ to ‘most disagree’, ‘most characteristic’ to ‘most uncharacteristic’, or ‘most attractive’ to ‘most unattractive’ The ranking of items in Q-methodology is a holistic or ‘gestalt’ procedure in which all elements are interdependently involved. It is the degree of correlation or dispersion of each of these factors that a Q-sort analysis expresses (Best & Kahn, 1993; Lanyon & Goodstein, 1971).

The Application of Q-methodology

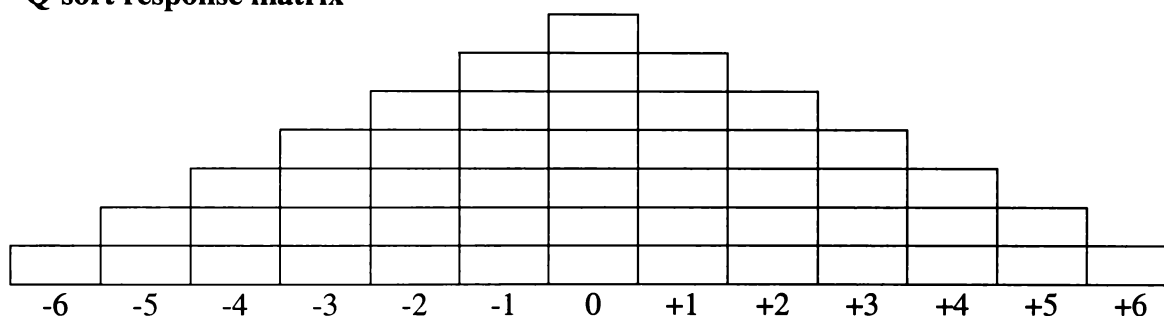
Q-methodology consists of ranking a set of items, called a Q-set. The act of ranking them is known as Q-sorting.¹ The Q-set usually consists of between 10 to 100 items (Rogers, 1994). The greater the number of items the greater the increase in configuration and the likely reduction in distinguishing correlations between items.

¹ ‘Q’ here carries no special meaning other than to distinguish the material from that used in R-methodology, e.g. Spearman’s R - rank-order correlation.

Research experience and statistical comparisons have shown that full ranking is unnecessary and that a more user-friendly and equally efficient result can be obtained by using a quasi-normal distribution (Figure 1) (Brown, 1980). This also reduces the applicability of two basic criticisms, often levelled at Q-Sorts, external validity and generalisability (Wolf, 1997). If small sample sizes do not provide an adequate basis for generalisation, the use of Q-Sorts is restricted to an exploratory and confirmatory role, as it was in this study. Beyond that, normative studies using much larger samples are needed in order to adequately test theoretical propositions about Q-Sorts (Cronbach & Gleaser, 1954; Wolf, 1997).

Figure 1

Q-sort response matrix



Note: In this example, one item is assigned to each of the '6' positions, two of the '5' positions and so on, with eight items being placed in the neutral or null position. This accommodated 56 items in all. Larger samples may use an 11- or 9-0 point distribution.

Brown, S. (1980) *Political subjectivity: Applications of Q methodology in political science*. New Haven: Yale University Press, p.202.

The Application of Q-Sort as an Example of Q-methodology

The use of a quasi-normative distribution scale with large distributions usually reflected a norm-based distribution of responses. Because of its particular purpose in this study as a method of triangulation and because of the low numbers involved, the researcher sought a more 'polarising' version of Q-methodology (Appendix 12). Examples of these

are to be found in measures of attitude to school, for example the School Attitude Scale (Kniveton, 1969) or the School Sentiment Index (Reid, 1972). However, it could be argued that the particular philosophical perspectives of these scales did not reflect New Zealand attitudes to school, for example, reference to ‘performance categories’ or ‘peer coaching teams’. Neither, as mentioned above, was a measure designed for a large number of participants necessarily relevant to a sample of only 19 pupils. Additionally, the researcher considered that a ‘polarised’ version would answer some of the criticisms levelled at Q-Sorting; in particular that the measures employed should be “a suitable translation or manifestation of the concept or underlying variable the investigator is seeking to study” (Block, 1961, p. 29). A modified Q-Sort was developed that was seen as being more suited to this particular task. The instructions for its administration are included in Appendix 12.

The Design of the Q-Sort Activity

The Q-Sort activity in this study was designed to elicit particular pupil perceptions of their social and school learning environment. Because it sought to identify those perceptions that were seen as being most significant, those pupils attempting it were asked to discriminate between behaviours that were of greater or lesser significance. The behaviours, expressed as random items, were originally sourced from the Test Activity Scale (Sarason, 1960) and Phillips, Martin and Meyer’s (1972) School Anxiety Scale. In order to more accurately discriminate between items, Cotterell (1982) used the responses of 310 Grade 7 pupils to the original 36 items in an image factor analysis. This was subjected to a varimax rotation in order to extract six possible clusters of items which accounted for 61.2% of the variance. These included:

- (i) general school satisfaction
- (ii) school related anxiety including test anxiety
- (iii) satisfaction with progress in school work
- (iv) satisfaction with peer relationships
- (v) school anxiety including anxiety rising out of relationships with teachers
- (vi) sense of futility with school work

In Cotterell's (1982) research, a close statistical correlation (between 0.8 and 0.9) and logical association was found to exist between clusters (ii) and (v), and (iii) and (vi) (Cotterell, 1982). After personal communication with Dr. Cotterell the researcher decided to reassign the subscales into four groupings. The reasons for this included the high degree of agreement between the selected four factors and the original six, the expectation that the use of a pilot study to verify the degree of agreement between the four scales was unwarranted in the light of the small numbers involved and that its purpose in this study was to identify the most disparate opinions across a small scale rather than agreement between several factors on a large scale.

The reassigned groupings were:

- (i) general school satisfaction
- (ii) confidence
- (iii) schoolwork satisfaction
- (iv) social satisfaction

For the purpose of this Q-Sort activity, 24 of the original 36 items were selected; 6 in each grouping; three positive and three adverse. The selection identified those items which, in the view of the researcher, best reflected the purpose for the research and the research setting. They included:

(i) General school satisfaction

Positive

- I look forward to coming to school each day
- In school I'm often able to work with people I like
- Normally I feel quite relaxed about school

Adverse

- I do not really enjoy anything about this school
- I wish we were free to do things our own way instead of being told what to do
- Nobody in this school seems to notice me or care what happens to me

(ii) Confidence

Positive

- I like school better than most other kids
- I like my teachers
- When exams are due, I feel confident I will do well

Adverse

- I am often afraid I will make a fool of myself in class
- I think that people like me will never do well at this school no matter how hard we try
- At times I feel lost and alone in this school

(iii) Schoolwork satisfaction

Positive

- I am quite satisfied with how my schoolwork is going
- I am making good progress with my work
- My teachers take into account what I need and what I am interested in

Adverse

- I'm afraid to tell the teacher when I do not understand the work
- A good deal of school work is just to keep us busy
- I have trouble keeping up with my work

(iv) Social satisfaction

Positive

- I am accepted and liked by most of the kids in my class
- Other kids in my class try to include me in whatever they are doing
- My teachers are friendly towards me

Adverse

- In this school people like me don't have any luck
- I don't seem to belong in any friendship groups
- At this school I don't have as many friends as I would like

These 24 items were listed and numbered randomly and the Q-Sort administered according to the instructions detailed in Appendix 12. The randomised items are shown in Appendix 13.

The Q-Sort survey was administered to the 20 pupils in the middle of their Year 10 and again to 18 members after they had settled into their secondary schools. One pupil had moved to a distant school. Another, who attended a Polytechnic had changed address. Neither was able to be traced. The first administration was designed to verify the pupils' perceptions of school as obtained through interviews. The second was to confirm their adaptation into a new school environment.

Q-Sorting as a Method of Triangulation

Q-Sorting is based on the correlation of agreement concerning participants' interpretations of a pool of items about a particular topic. In this application, one Q-Sort model was modified to suit the particular conditions and purposes of this research project. Its use in the present research was primarily as a method of triangulation; to confirm pupils' perceptions of four school-related variables; school satisfaction, confidence, schoolwork satisfaction and social satisfaction. An inbuilt validity factor provided a further triangulation tool because the survey included the use of both positive and adverse items within each cluster. It was also intended that the use of the Q-Sort would provide complementary evidence to that obtained from interviews. A discussion of the results of the Q-Sort survey and their relation to the data from interviews and Picture Interpretation is included in Chapter 6.

Picture Interpretation as a Semi-projective Technique

As a research technique, Picture Interpretation aims to facilitate perceptions of a situation by enabling the subject to identify with a person in an illustration and make an explanation on their behalf. To this end it is a projective technique. The main distinguishing feature of projective techniques is the use of a relatively unstructured task; one which permits an almost unlimited variety of possible responses (Anastasi, 1954; Newton, 1992). The use of pictorial materials in such tasks gives a more structured and restricted application to their use. This, together with the degree to which the respondents' tasks are circumscribed by the instructions or the context of the pictures, allows the classification of semi-projective techniques.

The use of the interpretation of pictures as a research method has been well documented (Cavendish, Galton, Hargreaves & Harlem, 1990; Galton & Williamson,

1992; Klein, 1976; Morgan & Murray, 1935; Newton, 1992). Its development can be traced to the era of attitude assessment as part of the scientific test development movement of the 1920s and 30s. Perhaps the most famous of these was the Rorschach test, developed in 1921, in which subjects were asked to describe ink blots (Anastasi, 1961; Klein, 1976). On the grounds of reliability, validity and standardisation, projective tests rarely met the requirements of good tests (Klein, 1976) but they have nevertheless been widely used. They were most frequently used to ascertain attitudes and to complement other data. Morgan and Murray (1935) for example, justified their development of the Thematic Aperception Test on the grounds that individuals were likely to reveal their motivation while interpreting pictures (Hargreaves, 1998). Galton and Williamson (1992), in citing Morgan and Murray's (1935) justification for the use of picture interpretation techniques, suggested:

Through such mechanisms as projection and identification with the characters in a story a person is able to reveal aspects of self which govern the development of values and motives. (p. 36)

Other applications of Picture Interpretation included the purpose of aiding comprehension. Van den Broek (1990) referred to the role of pictures in maintaining a "causal coherence in the mental representation of the narrative" (p. 71). Newton (1992) claimed that although pictures were not necessary to comprehension and also, quite when and why they were useful was not clear, their inclusion did facilitate comprehension. This was particularly relevant when making inferences, relating events in a mental schema and later recall. Goldstein (1987) suggested that in an interpretive survey situation, the function of the picture was reversed. The focus of the reader's

visual interpretation of a setting tended to enhance the subject's comprehension of a situation. In this research study, not only was it expected that the use of Picture Interpretation would add another dimension to the research, but also that it would offer added appeal to the expected group of reluctant readers in the class.

Newton (1992) has cited a number of communicative functions of pictures, which, although discussed in the context of story-telling and reading, were seen by Hargreaves (1998) as being equally applicable in developing pictorial stimuli in a research instrument. These were that pictures:

- attract the child's attention
- depict people and situations that the child can relate to, thereby stimulating interest
- facilitate the modelling of subsequent events
- provide information not explicitly stated
- reiterate the text.

As Hargreaves (1994, p. 254) noted, pictures "supply a context which ties an event to a concrete instance and make it meaningful". Pictures, therefore, provided a useful medium for facilitating understanding. It is this use that is reflected in their application in Picture Interpretation surveys. Hargreaves (1998) and Galton & Williamson (1992) suggested that the common characteristics of the use of pictures in Picture Interpretation surveys included:

- the pictures were visual cues, specifically designed for one purpose and usually seek respondents to project themselves into an imaginary situation
- the pictures were designed so that all respondents could identify with them. This implied a contemporary setting and neutral images, "void of distinctive features, expressions and bodily postures" (Hargreaves 1998, p.2)

- respondents were asked to project themselves into the visual situation and write what a member was saying or thinking or doing.

Hargreaves (1998) further commented that, for children with reading/writing difficulties, it might be that a visual instrument had more appeal. In other words, it offered a more appropriate and authentic means of assessment because it had less of a literacy challenge and more visual appeal. This was supported by Goldstein and Underwood's (1981) work with slow progress primary-aged readers in which they confirmed that the textual equivalent of a picture could be a lengthy piece of writing. Newton (1992, p. 253) commented that, "pictures have the potential to offer information which might be difficult to provide briefly or meaningfully in simple language."

While there has been debate over whether methods that employ projection and identification with characters in a story necessarily indicate the strength of people's motive or drives (Arnold, 1982; Warren & Jahoda, 1976) there was general agreement amongst researchers that pictures revealed an attitude component in the participants, particularly when they were asked to describe what was happening in pictures (Galton, Simon & Croll, 1980).

Recent Applications of Picture Interpretation Surveys

The researcher's interest in semi-projective techniques was aroused during a visit to Leicester University in 1995 where the Transfer Project (1995-1997) planned to employ Picture Interpretation as part of a survey into transition between primary and secondary school. As part of the research, a semi-projective pictorial stimuli was used as a means of generating written responses from pupils in their final year of primary school. The picture used in the survey was designed specifically in response to a research question,

“How do you get children to think about what it might be like to arrive at the school gates on the first day of term in a new school?” (Hargreaves, 1998, p. 2). The intention was to use the picture as a visual cue so that children might identify with a figure in the illustration and project their feelings as if they were that person (Appendices 14.1 and 14.2). Respondents were asked what the figures might be saying and to choose whether a boy or girl was speaking in each of the two sentence-completion items.

In the Transfer Project (1995-1997), the Picture Interpretation survey was applied to 601 children from four schools. Data from each response were coded in terms of the “feelings” expressed in comments made by “Speaker 1” in the first sentence-completion task and by “Speaker 2” in the second. Comments were further divided into positive, neutral or negative and analysed in terms of their content, whether uttered by a boy or girl and whether respondents were “supportive” or not (Hargreaves, 1998, p. 3). It is significant that most comments about a new school could be grouped into:

- social relations, including making new friends and getting along with teachers
- size of school, particularly regarding finding one’s way about and knowing where to be and when
- emotion about starting at a new school, including anticipating what to expect.

Measor and Woods (1984a) reported that expressions of concern about going to a new school were often coupled with comments on its size. In the Transfer Project, 27% of boy respondents and 31% of girl respondents used similar expressions to those in the Measor and Woods’ study. In this study, the researcher considered it appropriate, within the theme of potential anxiety experienced by pupils when adapting to a larger school setting, to adopt both categories that were significant in the Transfer Project and also those that have traditionally emerged from previous research. The categories included:

- entering a new institution

- coping with a new organisation
- relationships with teachers
- meeting other pupils.

These categories provided the basis for the analysis of data from the Picture Interpretation survey in this study. In discussion with researchers at Leicester University it was decided that the areas in which children expressed concern in the UK study might also apply to a New Zealand setting and that these should reflect the focus of both the Picture Interpretation survey and the Q-Sort survey. In turn, the categories of response also reflected the focuses of previous surveys of this type. Youngman's study (1986) identified these areas as characteristic of pupils' concerns when they were in transfer to another institution. The same categories were also used in the original ORACLE (Observational Research And Classroom Learning Evaluation) study (1975 –77), where they were derived from the conditions and experiences traditionally associated with pupils' transfer.

The Application of the Picture Interpretation Surveys

The inclusion of a semi-projective technique in this research study served three purposes. It was included as a means of confirming and supplementing perceptions gained from other methods, particularly data from interviews, case studies and Q-Sorts. It added a non-verbal dimension for those respondents who favour responding in that mode. Its semi-projective nature allowed for responses to be more indirect, flexible and imaginary than the specificity demanded by some written surveys such as questionnaires.

In this study, the purpose of the Picture Interpretation survey was to obtain pupils' perceptions of how they saw the main components of transition. The domains selected for responses reflected the categories above and included, entering a new school, relationships with others, relationships with teachers and coping in a new organisation. Because of this focus, the survey was also a means of triangulation. The survey was applied to 18 pupils in a Year 10 class, three weeks before the end of Year 10 at the Middle School and to 16 pupils, four weeks into the new year at secondary schools. The pupils were asked to consider each of four drawings and write what members in the pictures were saying or doing (Appendices 15.1 to 15.4).

Analysis of Data from the Picture Interpretation Surveys

Once the pupils had responded, written answers were analysed in terms of the intended message in each statement. The basic unit of analysis was the verbal unit or verbal move. In this context a verbal move was any statement that described only one action, attitude or event. This was similar to the verbal move, described by Katterns (1974) as "a single verbal statement with a single, identifiable pedagogical function" (p.20). It is not dissimilar to that used by Norris, Mokhtari and Reichard (1998) in their analysis of children's writing, to describe an "idea unit" (p. 71).

As used in this study, an example of a verbal move was, "She is asking where to go". An example such as, "He is thinking he'll be embarrassed by going to the wrong place or saying the wrong thing" included two moves; one about going to the wrong place and one about saying the wrong things. They were also regarded as two moves because they included two examples of potential embarrassment by the subject. Moves that repeated an attitude were recorded as one move, e.g. "Will I fit in?" "Will I be

accepted?” In deciding verbal moves, the focus was on the object of the sentence or the outcome of the action.

The verbal moves were further categorised in terms of whether they portrayed a positive, neutral or adverse behaviour. For example, positive behaviours were those where the respondent’s expectation was enjoyment or satisfaction; for example, “I’ll be making new friends.” Neutral behaviours expressed no emotive or value-laden responses; for example, “She is talking to the others.” Adverse behaviours included expressions that denoted fear or anxiety; for example, “The teacher is grumpy.”

While being aware of Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum’s (1957) warning that “the meanings of scales and their relations to other scales vary considerably with the concept being judged” (p.187), a check on a random sample of 40 verbal moves between two coders, indicated a high degree of agreement. In turn each verbal move was categorised in terms of its context. These reflected the groupings described earlier and included, ‘self’, ‘schoolwork related’, ‘social interaction’, ‘school organisation’ and ‘relations with teachers’. These groupings also reflected the natural domains into which the responses could be sorted. In the example, “I am embarrassed about not being able to find my way to my new classroom”, the word, “embarrassed” denotes an adverse category; “finding my way” is an organisational matter.

The use of the Picture Interpretation survey not only enabled the researcher to ascertain pupils’ responses to images about transition but also, from a triangulation function, to assess if these reflected the same concerns that were raised in interviews about transition.

Possible Shortcomings of the Application in this Study

The content of each of the four pictures used in this study was precise and offered in clear contexts (Appendices 15.1 to 15.4). The question accompanying each picture attempted to provide a means whereby the respondents would project themselves into a particular setting. In this way the survey was context-dependent and focussed. But, in terms of making generalisations, the researcher needed to be aware of the shortcomings of transferring outcomes from a picture's content to a wider setting. For example, was it feasible for the researcher to use data from a picture about a pupil approaching a school receptionist to make assumptions about school organisation? From another perspective, in this study, the respondents' interpretations were analysed in terms of their verbal moves and the wider five categories and not matched in terms of subject and picture. For example, if a survey included a picture of pupils looking at a timetable on a notice board, their responses would unlikely to be restricted to ideas about organisation and administration. Such a picture might also evoke comment about teacher personalities, the subject being studied or homework requirements.

There was an implicit assumption by the researcher that the pictures included in a survey were of neutral settings. For some respondents, the settings may be seen as challenging, rather than neutral and therefore their response could have been affected by the emotional overlay of the picture. In this survey, there was an assumption that a school locker bay was neutral territory, as might be an entrance foyer, the school gates or a classroom (Appendices 15.1 to 15.4).²

One of the reasons for the use of projective techniques in this study was that they enabled responses to questions; that they might make it easier for the pupils in Years 9 and 10 to interpret and express their feelings about school because the survey

² In the Middle School, a locker bay was part of the entrance foyer to the Year 9 and 10 classrooms.

was based on visual interpretation rather than verbal responses. But, interpretation was only part of the process. Having interpreted a situation and decided what a member of a picture might be saying or thinking, the respondent was then required to express the interpretation. So the assistance that the visual presentation offered was in the interpretation rather than the expression of it.

The inclusion of the Picture Interpretation survey in this research was based on the assumption that it might encourage opinions from those who do not readily respond favourably to written questions. Following both surveys, the respondents were asked, as a group, if they found it easier having pictures to prompt their ideas. Although their responses implied that this was a possibility and certainly no handicap, no strong opinion was given favouring the use of pictures.

The Use of Case Studies in Research

Case study research has played a significant role in the history of research. As a particular technique, it has been used extensively in social science research, including the traditional disciplines such as psychology, sociology, education, political science, anthropology, history and economics (Yin, 1994). One particular purpose of case study research has been to complement larger scale scientific or qualitative survey approaches by studying more closely the characteristics of an individual unit- “one person, one group, one classroom, one town, one nation” (Bouma, 1993, p.89). One famous case study is that of W.F. Whyte’s “Street Corner Society” (1943/1955) which described a subculture in one neighbourhood over several years. While the approach enjoys wide applicability across a range of topics, from community sociology to regional planning and economics, common to all applications is its role in understanding complex social phenomena. Cohen and Manion (1996) suggested that:

The purpose of such observation is to probe deeply and to analyse intensively the multifarious phenomena that constitute the life cycle of the unit with a view to establishing generalisations about the wider population to which the unit belongs. (p.106-7)

The approach is usually intensive, concerned with seeking a range of data and often reliant upon participant observation. Yin (1994) saw the role of case studies as including:

In brief, the case study allows an investigation to retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real-life events - such as individual life cycles, organisational and managerial processes, neighbourhood change, international relations and the maturation of industries. (p. 3)

One case study approach involves the researcher observing a subject in a natural setting. The observer may be a participant observer where they engage in the very activities they set out to observe, or a non-participant observer, who stands aloof from the activities they are investigating (Cohen & Manion, 1996,). Bailey (1978) suggested that the advantages of a case study approach included:

- in comparison to experiments and surveys, they were superior when observation of non-verbal behaviour is undertaken
- behaviour was able to be observed as it occurs
- the observations were less reactive than other methods.

To this end, Yin (1994) suggested that case studies go beyond being merely exploratory, they are pluralistic in nature and can be used for exploratory, descriptive or explanatory purposes. Each of these purposes is influenced by the type of research, the researcher's control over events and the focus on contemporary, as opposed to

historical, phenomena. In general, the case study approach is preferred when ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions are being posed, when the researcher has little control over events and when the focus is on a contemporary context (Yin, 1994). For example:

...the case study’s unique strength is its ability to deal with a full variety of evidence - documents, artifacts, interviews and observations - beyond what might be available in the conventional historical study. (p. 8)

Cohen and Manion (1996) warned against the use of the case study approach as a basis for generalisations, but Yin (1994) defended their use in this way, provided that they were applicable to a theory, rather than a population. In this particular study, case studies offered support to extending theories about transition, but it was not suggested that this was applicable to all pupils entering secondary schools.

A further feature of the case study approach was the length of time it might involve. Yin (1994) pointed out that this was appropriate to some case studies in the past but the approach need not be confused with ethnographic studies which require lengthy periods of time in the field. Case studies do not depend solely on particular observational or ethnographic data. They could be assisted by using complementary resources such as the telephone and print data.

The Application of the Case Study Approach in this Study

In this study, the case study approach was used in two ways. First, it was used to confirm emergent ideas and observations made during interviews and classroom observations. For example, a pupil’s comment in class that the new technology programme was seen by all members of the class as being of little benefit, was able to be followed up in a case study interview. Second, it also offered an in-depth interpretation of the middle school’s learning and social environment, as seen by the

three pupils in the case studies, during their Years 9 and 10; what Smith and Dwyer (1979) refer to as, “tapping the language and perspectives of the participants in the settings” (p.85). For example, what the researcher observed as an easy and humourful class discussion about topics for the speech contest, was able to be explored in a case study interview in terms of it being typical of the teacher-pupil discussions in the class.

Some researchers have noted that case studies can make generalisations about an instance or from an instance to a class (Adelman, Jenkins & Kemmis, 1980; Cohen & Manion, 1996; Yin, 1994). In this particular application of the approach, three case studies were used to confirm beliefs about a class and to obtain particular pupil’s perspectives on their and the class’s development. The approach was essentially one of an interview schedule with participant observation serving to confirm issues raised in interviews, or, where pupil interviews followed instances in the class or school programme.

This study also attended to Yin’s (1994) five criteria for an ‘exemplary’ case study. The first criteria was that it should be significant, that is, interesting and important. In this research study, the case studies were chosen because each was likely to reflect a different perspective of social and educational development in a changing social setting; one girl, one boy and a second boy who had entered the Middle School from another secondary school. Additionally, it was expected that examples from the studies would complement explanations about the culture of the classroom and also reflect ideas associated with change theory.

The second criteria was that case studies should show their ‘completeness’; the boundaries of the case should be clear, the researcher should obtain all relevant evidence and the time interval should be appropriate (Yin, 1994). This study focussed on three pupils during their time at the Middle School and the first half of their year at

secondary school. It focussed on social and educational factors in both school and home settings. The researcher used a variety of observational settings and data recording methods to obtain information.

The third criteria was that the case study should consider alternative perspectives, to attend to different points of view so as not to give one version of a case and to adequately represent different perspectives (Yin, 1994). In this study, the researcher, while attentive to the ethical considerations, validated information from observations and interviews, with other teachers, pupils and the pupils' parents. This served both to confirm notions and to give a broader perspective to many areas of interest.

A fourth criteria was that the case study must contain sufficient evidence, with reference to both supporting and challenging data. In this way a reader should be able to conclude independently whether a particular interpretation is valid (Yin, 1994). In this study, information from the case studies was as full and substantial as could be reasonably expected by the scale of the study.

The final characteristic suggested by Yin (1994) was that the case study should be "engaging" in its presentation (p.151). In this study, the researcher attempted to maintain the reader's interest in each study and also to draw significant similarities and differences between the three pupil's experiences. Because each pupil changed in a different way as a result of the Middle School experience, the case studies add both interest and rigour to the overall investigation.

Triangulation through the use of Multiple Methods

Triangulation through the use of several and often dissimilar methods of collecting information assists the researcher in establishing the trustworthiness of research data

(Cohen & Manion, 1996; Goetz & LeCompte, 1984; Merriam, 1988). In this study, the use of two supportive research methods, Q-Sort and Picture Interpretation surveys, to provide additional evidence to that gained from interviews, was the prime means of triangulation. Merriam (1988) referred to this approach as “methodological triangulation” (p. 69) and suggested, with reference to Denzin (1970), that the rationale for the use of multiple methodologies was that the combination of methodologies enabled researchers to use the best features of each. In this study, because Q-Sorting enabled the respondents to make decisions about their perceptions of their social and academic life, it offered a useful basis for the comparison of evidence from other sources.

The use of Picture interpretation surveys provided a further means of triangulation. These surveys provided additional information from the same focus areas encompassed by the Q-Sorts and interview data. Data obtained from both pre and post transition surveys was able to be compared with interview data that had been obtained at the same time.

The case studies provided an in-depth insight into three pupils’ experiences. Characterised by frequent and detailed interviews, they provided the “thick description” envisaged by Guba and Lincoln (1981, p. 375). Merriam (1988) categorised case studies as being ‘descriptive’, ‘interpretative’ or ‘evaluative’. As primarily a descriptive account of the pupils’ perceptions, the case studies were not driven by predetermined generalisations and offered further insights into their transition.

Summary

In this study, qualitative methods were employed that best suited the context and purposes of the study. The data gathering methods selected were semi-structured interviews and observations, supported by Q-Sorts and Picture Interpretation surveys. In terms of interviews, the application largely involved a semi-structured approach, which acknowledged the need for a flexible framework of focussing questions, the inclusion of emergent domains and an awareness of the existing ideas and beliefs that the researcher might bring to their interviews. The interview schedule mainly focussed on the first Year 9 and 10 class and those associated with their adaptation to a changing environment. The data obtained was subjected to analysis by a QSR NUD*IST programme and the emergent domains discussed as themes (These are addressed in Chapters Six and Seven).

Observation techniques involve experiencing the social scene and seeking to understand it. In this study, these largely included classroom interactions between pupils and between the teacher and the pupils. Such observations were assisted by emergent, unstructured interviews that sought explanations or confirmations and served to enhance the researcher's understandings of the formal and informal cultures operating in the Year 9 and later, Year 10 classroom. Three case studies provided further insights into both the pupils' experiences as part of the developing Middle School and also their coping with transition to a larger school.

The inclusion of a semi-projective technique, Picture Interpretation, as part of a research study served three purposes. It was used as part of triangulation to confirm attitudes expressed during interviews. It added a non-verbal dimension for those respondents who might favour responding in that mode. Its semi-projective nature allowed for responses to be more indirect, flexible and imaginary than the specificity

demanding by some written surveys such as questionnaires. Q-Sort surveys were also included as part of triangulation. In this study, the use of a more polarised version sought verification of perceptions expressed in the interviews. The translation of responses into quantified data in both the Picture Interpretation and Q-Sort surveys offered a further, supportive use for quantitative methods.

The methods selected, reflected an awareness of the breadth of the field of interpretive methodologies and significant variables such as reliability, validity, factual data and triangulation.

The next chapter, Chapter Six, presents the findings of this study.

CHAPTER 6

THE FINDINGS

Overview

This chapter is organised into three main areas in which data have been grouped; School Organisation; Curriculum Delivery and Social Relations. Within each area, the findings are discussed in terms of emergent themes, with supportive evidence from the participants; the pupils, the teachers of Years 9 and 10, other teachers in the school, the Middle School principal and the parents. The challenges associated with the development of the Middle School are also described.

School Organisation

This section includes an analysis of those factors that dealt with the translation of an ideal for the Middle School into detailed arrangements. The themes that emerged were; initial changes in school organisation, emergent organisational issues, pupils' and parents' views on the organisation, and decision-making processes. The section concludes with a description of two ongoing challenges to the Middle School's organisation.

Initial Changes in the School Organisation

Organisational changes in the first year of the Middle School operation comprised little more than an extension of what had been operating when the school was a two-year structure. In terms of personnel, the school had a full-time principal (the only staff member without responsibility for a class), a deputy principal who taught the Year 9

class, five Year 7 and five Year 8 class teachers, four technicraft teachers and ancillary staffing which included a librarian and teacher aides.

The relatively short time of four months from the approval by the Ministry of Education to establish a Year 9 class, to the start of the next school year, provided some challenges. For example, the Ministry of Education's proviso that the school's expansion should be fiscally neutral, meant that no further buildings could be established. A quick reorganisation of the existing buildings provided a classroom and the school year began with a Year 9 class of 22 pupils. The deputy principal was chosen by the principal to teach the class because of his masters degree qualification and what the principal saw as his exceptional competence as a teacher and his enthusiasm for the concept of a middle school. After discussions between the principal and the Year 9 teacher, a programme was devised. It was to be based on the use of two or three blocks of time, on most days, for the teaching of the core subjects. This 'homeroom' time would involve at least 50 per cent of the programme and include the teaching of English, Mathematics, Social Studies, Science and Physical Education (newsletter to Year 8 parents, November, 1995). Additionally, technicraft classes would operate on one day of the week. Technicraft classes (alternatively called tech/arts) would include Food Technology, Textile Technology, Workshop Technology, Music and Art. An 'Options' programme, operating most days, would offer choices from 16 interest areas (Appendix 16).

Emergent Organisational Issues

The first Year 9 class operated as an additional class within the school and negotiations for extra facilities were relatively easily accommodated. However, when the first Year 9 class moved on to Year 10, two Year 9 classes were established. Despite the provision of

two new classrooms, the need for additional facilities and reorganisation became more urgent. Issues surrounding timetabling, the use of resources, the adherence to a primary or secondary system and the specialisation that had been easily negotiable in the first year, were to become more significant in the second year. Issues emerged concerning the specialist roles of the teachers and the use of resources. These involved both identifying specialist teaching times and also organising the use of special facilities, including the gymnasium, the library and the computers. In the view of some staff, the establishment of a structured timetable implicitly gave the Year 9 and 10 teachers priority use of the special facilities.

Timetabling was clearly seen by the teachers, as an organisational issue. The timetable controlled access to resources. Any move towards a more specialised approach to organisation was reflected in a more detailed timetable. This timetable was viewed by some teachers as not only deciding when they could use resources but in some cases restricting access to them. One Year 7 teacher commented:

The Form One and Two [Year 7 and Year 8] area was asked to work in with a timetable which was given to us. It meant that our gym time was seriously compromised and we were looking at a situation which saw three-quarters of the school or children in the school having perhaps a fifth of the use of the gym and during the winter that really made a difference to the sort of P. E. programme they can (sic) run.

(Year 7 teacher) (I111TAn2Y)

The problem was relieved a little by the adoption of a more flexible timetable later in the second year, and by the Ministry of Education's provision of two extra classrooms early in that year. But some teachers viewed the priority access to facilities by the Year

9 and 10 teachers as part of a separatist development of the Middle School. As one explained:

A lot of the resources seem to be geared over to the Fourth Form [Year 10] area, which we don't have access to. Whereas last year we were teaching keyboard skills, computer skills, just basic setting up a database and doing spreadsheets and things like that. This year we haven't been able to do that, so it hasn't been part of our curriculum.

(Year 8 teacher) (I129TSH2Y)

Approximately half of the ten Year 7 and 8 teachers commented unfavourably on their restricted access to special facilities including the gymnasium, library and computers. Their criticisms concerned both the reduced time available and the time of day they were allocated. Traditionally, mornings had been reserved for teaching the core subjects. Afternoons were perceived as more appropriate for library and physical education activities. The morning time was seen to be eroded and interrupted by Years 9 and 10 pupils using the facilities. Furthermore, the flexibility of using large blocks of teaching time allowed informal negotiation between teachers for the use (including shared use) of resources.

In addition, the Year 9 and 10 classes were seen by the Years 7 and 8 teachers, as having a disproportionate allocation of Ministry of Education funding. They viewed the purchase of additional resources for Years 9 and 10 as diminishing others' share of the overall teaching resources. In reality, this was not the case. School records showed that, in the first year, money for the purchase of text books and furniture came from locally raised funds. In the second year the additional funds for these resources were

supplied by the Ministry of Education. Nevertheless, most of the Year 7 and 8 teachers felt that they were not as favourably resourced as they formerly had been.

Pupils' Views on Organisation

From the pupils' perspective, those who were part of the Year 9 and 10 programme viewed the integrated approach to the organisation as largely a continuation of what they had experienced in Years 7 and 8. Those pupils who joined the Middle School, in Years 9 and 10, from other secondary schools brought a different perspective. In this study, the six who came from other secondary schools are referred to as transfer pupils.

In terms of school organisation, all six commented on the differences; four favourably. The remaining pupils contrasted their new environment with that of the secondary schools.

When I started [at the Middle School] you stayed in the one class the whole time. It was heaps different to [secondary school] because you're used to moving around and that. I mean, with [secondary school], I liked it because you had to do that but here it's a lot different so that's one aspect of [secondary school] I did like. It's heaps better because you don't have to stick with the one teacher the whole day.

(Year 9 pupil) (I138PKE1Y)

Another commented:

I found that going to different classes and stuff was a bit better because I like them all just changing. Like if you got hacked with one of the teachers you just changed classes and stuff in an hour or so. And if there'd be a subject you didn't like or

something, you change over. And you get a break in every hour of like five minutes walking around and talking and stuff.

(Year 9 pupil) (I58PSP1Y)

The other four transfer pupils made contrasting comments. One Year 10 pupil observed:

[In the Middle School] Well the teacher gets to know you better. The class has been smaller and the teacher does know you well.

(Year 10 pupil) (I94PSh2Y)

All six pupils appreciated the smaller size of the Middle School and the support offered by the teachers.

It's smaller and everybody knows you and like you actually have attention and you don't have to be naughty to gain it. [Another secondary school] was so big, to get anything from a teacher you had to expel yourself out from the rest of the class. You had to say, "Hey, I'm here." You had to make a lot of noise.

(Year 10 pupil) (I189PTT2Y)

The pupils' comments included having "less resources", the school being "out in the wops" and inadequate time for covering the content of one core subject. But when asked if these factors were seen as 'disadvantages', none regarded them as significant. One Year 10 pupil commented on the lack of a Science laboratory and computer centre:

No, not really [a disadvantage]. We've done little [Science] experiments in the class. Computers - yeah; that's been a disadvantage. But then, if you go to a high school you're not going to be able to get on them straight away. Not like...they're

in your classroom, they're not. You actually have to take Computer Studies or have some sort of course doing computers.

(Year 10 pupil) (I96PGA2Y)

Parents' Views on School Organisation

In terms of school organisation all parents acknowledged that they appreciated the smaller size of the Middle School and its related advantages. There were fewer teachers and these were seen as being easily approachable. Class sizes were smaller. Some of the comments included: "You know everybody at the school. It's the size." "Everyone is friendly and relaxed." "They were treated like young adults." "People care about you there."

One feature frequently commented on by parents related to the size of classes at the Middle School and how well the teachers knew their pupils. Obviously the small class sizes and the generalist approach of the teachers which were features of the Middle School organisation favoured this. Several parents spoke about the range of options offered and their child's high self-esteem. Comments regarding the pupils included: "He totally loves the school." "He feels he belongs there." "I wish I'd done it for all three of them."

In contrast, five parents who had children attending a secondary school, commented on the secondary teachers' remote knowledge of their children at parent interviews following mid-year and end of year reports. One parent was certain that a teacher was reporting on another child's progress. Another commented on a teacher admitting, part way through a parent interview, that he had confused their child with another.

Another frequently offered characteristic of the Middle School was that the parents knew the teachers at the Middle School. Obviously, some of the parents whose children had been there since their Year 7 entry, and who also found access to the school easy, were familiar with the teachers. The researcher noticed how parents frequently used christian names when speaking about teachers at the Middle School in contrast with the use of titles for secondary school teachers.

One parent, who was also on the Board of Trustees at the Middle School spoke of its inception:

We were told it [starting a middle school] was a gamble, but I didn't believe that because being on the Board [of Trustees] I'd been on the appointment sub-committee for most of the teachers who were teaching in the school. I was aware from interviews and their CVs that they just don't work with the word 'failing'.

(Parent) (I90 Pa M2YPT)

Most of the parents' comments about the organisation of secondary schools were directly or indirectly related to the large size of the schools. Their perceptions about the relatively impersonal nature of the school, classroom management or difficulty of access to teachers, were factors of coping with large organisations. Nevertheless, comparisons between the two types of school were frequently offered. A parent whose child had experienced both, said:

I just think the [middle school] system is much better. I really have serious doubts about the secondary school system. I feel like it is a system and your child has to

fit into that whether they like it or not and if they don't fit in they don't pass and if they do fit in, then life is much more pleasant.

(Parent) (I130PSU)

It was this sort of view that eventually prompted some parents to approach the principal and ask if he would consider an extension of the Middle School classes to include Year 11. These comments are included in a later section dealing with the social perspective of the Middle School's development.

The Decision-making Processes

How decisions were made became more complex as the school grew in size. In the first year, existing structures for decision-making included the extra Year 9 class. It was seen as little more than an additional class in the school. With the expansion of the Years 9 and 10 into three classes in the second year, and the additional pressure on resources and timetabling, the traditional decision-making processes were challenged. The principal's view was that decisions should be made by those most affected by them, but he was available as a mediator and could make decisions when agreement could not be reached by any group. However, when the Year 9 and 10 syndicate made decisions that affected other teachers without consultation with them, some Year 7 and 8 teachers felt that the school's organisation was being challenged. A Senior Teacher in the Year 8 syndicate observed:

As far as I know, the decisions have been made just by individual people with little consultation with anybody else and I think that with all these third and fourth formers that we're really going to have to get together to make decisions... looking at the whole school.

(Year 8 Teacher) (I102TSH2Y)

Three of the Year 7 and 8 teachers considered an expanding school, warranted more formal systems. Another teacher commented:

I think we're allowed a great deal of professional freedom with the Senior Teachers, the senior staff, but I think at times it makes it difficult because there are more times when there needs to be more direction from the top which doesn't occur. Mainly just to get systems in place to ensure that everything is running smoothly. But it doesn't always happen that way.

(Year 7 teacher) (I117TLG2Y)

While, as one teacher commented, "The biggest change agents are the syndicates" and the participants were very aware that the school was in a state of change. Most teachers commented on factors such as the need for compromise, their uncertainty or the need for more formal structures. A sample of teachers' comments illustrating these included:

There seems to be a bit of a grey area and even when I spoke to [a teacher] about it, she was also a little bit unsure about who is doing what. The communication network in my opinion is not structured enough.

(Year 8 Teacher) (I128TST2Y)

We're also in a transition stage and at the end of the year we can sit down and decide. I think it would be useful for us because we're going through a process of transition

(Year 10 teacher) (I62TKJ2Y)

In one situation where two groups could not agree on the most appropriate outcome, a representative approached the principal for a decision. This was offered. Following that, the principal commented:

So again, it is just a whole series of compromises and I guess I live with the fact that I made the final decision, based on, I hope, not only accurate information, but based on fairness and I don't sense that the outcome would suggest anything else. Its accepted and it seems to be working.

(Middle School principal) (I59P2Y)

It was not the focus of this research to make comparisons between the adequacy of decision-making structures before and after the transfer to a Year 7 to 10 middle school. Nevertheless, in an expanding institution, the decision-making structures warrant ongoing review.

Ongoing Challenges

The ongoing challenges for the school related to those often associated with the emergence of a small organisation. For example, in contrast to large secondary schools, the Middle School was not able to offer a comprehensive sports programme because, for some sports, it could not field full teams. Being part of a large sports team was left to the goodwill of neighbouring schools. This varied in the secondary schools' accommodation of the Middle School pupils in teams. For example, membership of a rugby, soccer or netball team was welcomed by one secondary school but not two others. The same school did not offer hockey as a school sport. While Year 7 and 8 pupils could attend inter school sports meetings at intermediate level, Year 9 and 10

pupils were restricted in playing some sports for another secondary school or, alternatively, as members of a sports club.

Other challenges were seen to be related to teachers' adjustment to the specialist or generalist role. The evolution of this middle school necessarily involved adjustment and compromise so that the elements of curriculum delivery - teacher strengths, the timetable, optional subjects and staff development - could be modified to best suit the clients. How this affected the school's development is addressed in later sections.

Curriculum Delivery

This section focuses on curriculum delivery; what was to be taught and how it was to be taught. The section begins with the philosophy behind the curriculum. This is followed by a focus on how the curriculum was developed. A final section, on curriculum delivery, largely focusses on the roles of integration and specialism. It is divided into the advantages, differences and tensions associated with curriculum delivery.

The Underlying Philosophy

Initially, the philosophy behind curriculum delivery in the Middle School was based on a statement made by the principal. In a newsletter to parents in support of middle schools in general, he claimed they were "well placed" to deliver the curriculum to Year 7 to 10 pupils. The newsletter stated:

Middle Schools will be advantaged by being able to offer:

- generalist teachers with the capabilities to offer some specialisation and specialist teachers capable of generalist delivery;
- a substantial body of teachers already familiar with and working from Year 7 to 10 syllabuses;

- integrated curriculum delivery as an extension of existing practice rather than new innovation requiring high levels of teacher retraining;
- student-centred teaching and learning focussed on individual learners
- holistic teaching practices;
- student-based rather than subject-based teaching approaches; and
- flexible organisation and timetabling.

(Middle School Newsletter, February, 1995)

These goals were to be translated into school practice. Observations of team meetings, at the Middle School suggested that the formal constructs of curriculum delivery were seen by the principal and Year 9 and 10 teachers to include:

- an organisation where the class teacher taught most subjects, using large blocks of time;
- a flexible use of time and integration of subjects;
- ongoing collaboration and discussion between staff;
- an acknowledgment that compromises would have to be made;
- a range of options, tailored to the pupils' needs; and
- arrangements to accommodate those with special abilities.

The above elements were apparent in class programmes at the start of the first year. Curriculum delivery for Year 9 (and later the Year 10) was to be an extension of that offered in Years 7 and 8. The curriculum would be taught mainly by one class teacher, presented in an integrated way and involving large units of time with ongoing

specialisation for technicraft subjects and French. An options programme would offer extension programmes on four afternoons each week.

(Year 10 pupil) (I139GT2Y)

Developing a Curriculum; the principles

Before any programmes could operate, a continuous Year 7 to 10 curriculum had to be developed. The principal and deputy principal intended that the programme for the Year 9 class be seen as more than an addition to the Year 7 and 8 programme. It was to be part of an eventual Year 7 to 10 continuum. As a result, teachers with curriculum responsibilities were invited to write a continuous Year 7 to 10 programme for their particular subject. The Year 9 teacher explained his perception of the subject continuums as:

English, for example, would show the progression that we would expect to have coming through the school from Form One to Four [Years 7 to 10]. So it won't be Form One and Two [Years 7 and 8] and then you start something else in Form Three [Year 9]. The requirement is that it has continuity right through the four years.

(Year 9 Teacher) (I37TKJ1Y)

Curriculum development evolved in two sequential stages. Initially, the focus was on the lineal development of a year 7 to 10 programme in each subject. Only when this was achieved was attention able to be given to integration between subjects. Such a development had been envisaged by the Middle School principal:

Now, what we want to do is to get away from that disjointed approach and be able to say, at this school there is actually continuity right through the four levels. There isn't any sudden change in direction or subject content at Form Three [Year 9] or Form Four [Year 10], there is continuity. It is only then, I believe, that we can establish integration. If it's disjointed then the integration is fraught with risk.

(I49PLF1Y)

In terms of the total plan, the development of a four-year curriculum at the Middle School was based on a cumulative programme of conceptual knowledge and skills development. Within this structure, those planning different curriculum subjects were careful to offer a variety of unit studies or focuses in each year, so as to avoid repetition.

A further requirement of the Year 7 to 10 curriculum continuum was that it would include more time in which to encourage achievement in the curriculum subjects. Year 10 pupils would have a choice of sitting School Certificate subjects.¹ Frequent reference was made by other teachers of the advantages of having the pupils for the additional two years. One commented:

When fifty percent of your school leaves or is replaced each year, its difficult when you think of it in those terms. Words like 'commitment' and 'continuity' are all difficult to ensure. Its a huge turnover of people every year... and when you look at things like achievement statements and what you want your students to achieve while they're at your school, the scope for achievement is much greater over a four year term than over two years. I would suggest that the commitment

¹ School Certificate is a national examination which most pupils sit in their Year 11.

isn't quite as great when you know you have such a short time to work with students.

(Year 8 teacher) (I144TBB1Y)

In the second year of operation, the aims concerning curriculum integration and continuity were to be severely challenged. The addition of a second Year 9 class at the beginning of the second year prompted a varying interpretation by the teachers of the principal's philosophy of how the curriculum was to be delivered. This eventually led to radical changes in the nature of delivery and the associated effects, competition for resources, timetable modifications, the adoption of exams, social alienations between teachers within the Year 9 and 10 syndicate and, eventually, the resignation of a teacher. These issues are discussed later.

Developing a Curriculum: the Roles of Integration and Specialism

That there would be a compromise between subject integration and specialisation was apparent from the beginning. As the Middle School principal stated:

We've got to be able to say to these kids and their parents that we are doing something that is significantly different but we're not going to make it so different that you won't be able to cope when you move into [secondary school] at Fifth Form [Year 11] level. Into a school that's still using a form of delivery and a system that is quite different from what we are using. We can't afford to alienate them.

(Middle School principal) (I31PLF1Y)

In the first year, the Year 9 class teacher offered a programme that largely reflected the characteristics detailed above. As noted earlier, requirements from the Ministry of

Education that no further resources would be made available, other than those normally associated with roll expansion, meant that existing resources were shared with a wider clientele. Apart from issues relating to the use of the gymnasium, other classes' access to the computers (located in the Year 9 classroom) and adjustments to the timetable, the additional class was accommodated within existing structures. As the principal stated, "The Year 9 class is not a separate add on. It is like enlarging a house to accommodate an expanding family."

For the first year, in most subjects, planned integration was secondary to developing a cumulative, linear programme. One exception to this, where integration preceded linear development, was that of the introduction of the Technology curriculum. The introduction of this as national policy coincided with the first year of the Year 9 class. The principal:

It [the Technology curriculum] is not being set up as a separate entity. It's being set up as something that permeates your entire school climate and delivery programme.

(Middle School principal) (FNPLF1Y)

For all the class teachers, Years 7, 8 and 9, this proved to be the case. The Technology curriculum was readily adopted into the existing class programmes. In contrast, the Technicraft teachers found that it involved a considerable change in perspective. As one commented, "It's easier for the classroom teachers because it's already part of their culture." In part, this may be attributable to the technicraft teachers viewing their curriculum as possessing a focussed content base.

But, a major challenge to the Year 9 teacher, in the first year, was that of understanding the curriculum and the translation of this into a class programme. He not only had to familiarise himself with the content and skills in each curriculum area for Year 9 but these had to be translated into study units and include a certain degree of integration. In some cases this was planned. For example, a study of a river included aspects of Science, History, Language, Maths and Social Studies. In other instances integration emerged from the class programme. For example, a study of the novel, 'I am David', was the motivation to explore ideas about race relations and human rights. In addition, resources had to be purchased and storage of these arranged.

At the same time, the Year 9 class teacher also embarked on seeking accreditation of the school for offering New Zealand Units Standards.² An outside adviser was employed to work with the class teacher in developing a curriculum policy for the school. This ensured that particular knowledge and skills were being taught at each level. This was regarded by the class teacher and principal as a challenging task, but one which the principal hoped would eventually dispel fears that the Middle School pupils were achieving at a lower level than their counterparts at a secondary school.

Becoming familiar with the curriculum and developing a Year 9 programme was a real challenge for the teachers in the Middle School, as shown in the remainder of this chapter.

² Unit Standards are levels of achievement, detailed by the Ministry of Education. Schools which choose to offer these must prove their ability to do so.

Curriculum Delivery; the advantages

The teachers' flexibility of style

During the first two years of the Middle School's development, the teachers of the Years 9 and 10 classes changed their teaching styles according to their perception of how the curriculum should be delivered. Changes in style affected organisational matters such as timetabling and the introduction of exams.

In the first year, the Year 9 teacher changed his teaching style soon after the start of the year, from a group approach to a whole-class approach. In his view, the challenge of coping with a new curriculum might have been the reason for the change. This teacher felt that the latter offered more control and confidence in coping with a new curriculum. As he stated:

Yeah. I have to be honest. I've tended toward teaching in a more whole class way and less with grouping. Tended toward teaching in a whole class context more so than I did. Probably because I felt less secure with the curriculum because I'm on that learning curve. So that's tended for me to make me work within the class as a whole. I want those pupils to be engaged in learning. I don't want them wasting their time. I'm not saying that the grouping system is inappropriate for these kids, it could be done but I want to make sure that I'm keeping an eye on what they're doing all the time, that I haven't got one group off to one side who because of the mix of pupils are not committing themselves to the learning as they might otherwise have done if I'm not there keeping an eye on things. So that's the change.

(Year 9 teacher) (I37TKJ1Y)

Yet an integrative approach was still evident. This continued into the second year. An example included:

You can say, 'While we are studying this unit, we're going to be integrating aspects of Health, Social Studies and Science and during the course of that study these concepts will be developed but not in isolation.'

(Year 10 teacher). (I392YY10T)

What the pupils valued in the curriculum

The other Year 9 and 10 pupils also held clear ideas about what they valued in their class programme. For example, the first Year 9 class made frequent reference to their teacher's attempts at integration, particularly between English, Science, Social Studies and Maths. One example, taken from an early group discussion with the Year 9 pupils included:

In Maths we're getting sheets now on the Olympic games. And another thing is like for English we're doing all about the IRA and its all about civil rights and stuff which in Social Studies we're doing all about human rights and that sort of thing. And Technology which integrates with Science. We're doing stuff like that.

(Year 9 pupil) (I148PLH2Y)

While an integrated curriculum delivery was appreciated, the pupils offered clear ideas about what constituted a valued learning environment. Their comments centred around four features:

First, the ground rules or task expectations from teachers could be flexible but not significantly changed. When a task was outlined and the pupil expectations made clear, it was appreciated when teachers adhered to these. Changes in the time allocation to a task in order to accommodate an emerging workload were acceptable, but changes in the amount required or the method of presentation were not. An example concerned changes made in a technology unit. One pupil's comments included:

We were saying, 'Oh, there's too much writing and that there should be more practical and they said, 'Okay, we'll make it more practical and less writing.''
Now we have to do this big booklet and there's like six pages of work as well as a booklet and the booklets got like eight things.

(Year 10 pupil) (I151PGF2Y)

Fourth, the pupils appreciated the flexibility of time across subjects. A large block of time enabled those who saw themselves as 'slow workers' in one subject to use the extra time to compensate for their fast progress in others. One pupil explained:

We didn't actually join subjects together, but we had to get it all finished by the end of the day. Because like some people take ages on Maths and you finish things real fast and others take ages on English and finish things real slow but Maths real fast.

(Year 10 pupil) (I139MI2Y)

Finally, within the formal parameters of small classes working within a relatively flexible timetable, the pupils developed a keen awareness of their individual progress. Their comments about their attainment were usually couched in descriptive terms. In contrast to the ways in which they were later to account for their scholastic progress at secondary school, the Year 9 and 10 pupils used descriptions that were largely confined to their own progress, without comparison to others and which often included a diagnostic function.

My Maths is going well because I'm more confident with it. [The class teacher] has helped me with fractions but my decimals is (sic) troubling. I can understand tessellations now. I didn't think I could do Algebra but it's fun.

(Year 10 pupil) (I149PMS2Y)

Other data generally supported the pupils' comments on their coping with the curriculum and school in general. Q-Sort data from the whole group, indicated a positive view. Results from a Year 10, pre-transition survey overwhelmingly indicated that the pupils viewed their school life favourably. Scores on the positive comments in the Q-Sort survey were more than four times those of adverse comments. The most significant selections for being seen as 'most like' the pupil, included 'general school satisfaction' (28%) and 'work satisfaction' (32%) (Appendix 18). Within these categories, 9 of the 19 pupils had chosen the behaviour 'Normally I feel quite relaxed at school' and eight had selected 'I'm quite satisfied with how my schoolwork is going'.

The pupils' satisfaction with schooling was also generally endorsed by their choices of behaviours that were seen as being least like them. For example, in the 'Work satisfaction' cluster, the behaviour 'I have trouble keeping up with my work',

although designed in the survey to be regarded as an ‘adverse’ behaviour was able to be selected (like all the behaviours listed) as being ‘most like’ or ‘least like’ the pupil. An analysis from this perspective suggested a further clear endorsement of general satisfaction throughout each cluster.

Transfer pupils’ views on curriculum delivery

Six pupils joined the Year 9 and 10 classes from secondary schools. They are referred to as Transfer Pupils, in contrast to the Transfer Group, which was the Year 10 class in transition to secondary schools. The Transfer Pupils had experienced both integrated programmes during their primary schooling and specialist programmes as part of their secondary school experiences. They readily drew comparisons between the two types. For example, one commented:

I like having one teacher better because you can just ask them any time. But if you’ve got lots of teachers you’ve got to wait until the next day to ask them, so that’s pretty stink, but if you have one you can just ask them any subject, no matter what subject you’re in.

(Year 9 transfer pupil) (I67PSH2Y)

Specialist teaching was seen as one of the major differences in the cultures of the two sorts of schools. The six Transfer Pupils acknowledged that specialist teaching implied having teachers who were well qualified in their subjects and who operated in specialist rooms. While most of the pupils acknowledged that the class teachers knew their subjects, some comments were tempered with an awareness of the advantages of

specialisation. A pupil from a rural secondary school who joined the Year 9 class in the Middle School observed:

At [the previous secondary school] the teachers were pretty qualified. They've got more degree of learning and they're sort of more qualified in the area that they teach in. Like a Science teacher has gone to a university or a Polytech to specifically teach Science.... while here it is more out of a book and no sort of general knowledge from anywhere else. Like [the class teacher] is a really good teacher but he relies on books and materials and not sort of own knowledge.

(Year 9 transfer pupil) (I112PTS1Y)

While most of the Transfer pupils acknowledged that the subject teachers at their previous secondary schools were more qualified, generalist teachers were still considered competent. One suggested:

... they're specialist teachers and they know what they're talking about. But because [the class teacher at the middle school] knows pretty much what he's doing for each subject, so its okay.

(Year 10 transfer pupil) (I124PSh2Y)

Each of the Transfer pupils saw advantages in having a general teacher. One commented:

Because he actually knows who you are and he can expect the same for every subject and if he sees like a strength in one subject he can complement that and

say, well, you do this subject better because you like it. Why can't you make all your books like this?

(Year 10 transfer pupil) (I141PTG2Y)

At the end of Year 10, all six pupils in the Transfer Group claimed that they would have preferred to have been at the Middle School from the start. In answer to a question about the advice they would offer a younger brother or sister, all but one said that they would suggest they attend the Middle School rather than going to a secondary school. The remaining pupil thought it better to get the transition to secondary school "over and done with."

The advantages of the Options programme

The Options programme included a range of subjects and interest areas, from which the pupils could select one each half-year and explore an interest or extend a particular ability. At this stage, the Year 9 and 10 classroom programmes were based on three teachers offering an integrative programme for the core subjects, for most of the day. A technicraft programme occupied two half-day blocks each week and the Options programme was established at the end of each day. The principal expected all members of staff to contribute to the Year 9 and 10 programme by offering a subject in the Options programme at that level. Involvement could include teaching subjects within the general timetable during traditionally non-teaching periods, or taking an options class during the last part of the daily programme during the extended day.³

³ The school year had been shortened to compensate for the longer teaching day.

Two additional factors are noted. The first was that the Options programme offered a wide ranging choice of subjects. It was the principal's intention, as he put it, to "fit programmes to pupils and not pupils to programmes". Should pupils choose a subject that was outside the staff's ability to offer, outside providers would be employed to deliver that particular subject. This was the case in the Japanese Option class. A second feature was the range of abilities to be found within the staff. Some teachers took the opportunity to teach subjects they had taken as part of their university studies. This was the case with the Photography and Samoan classes. In the second year, 32 choices were offered in the Options classes (Appendix 17).

Parents' views on the advantages of the curriculum offered

From a curriculum delivery perspective, all the parents interviewed at the Middle School, whether or not they had children at both the Middle and at a secondary school or whether their child had transferred from a secondary school, held clear ideas about what they saw as effective or useful education for their children. Whether they drew on their own or their children's experiences of secondary, all favoured how the Middle School presented the curriculum and drew unfavourable comparisons with what secondary schools offered, at the Year 9 and 10 levels. One parent suggested:

At [secondary school named] the teachers didn't get to know the students as well on a personal level. They were just students, just faces, and to a child who is trying to grow, to capture the concept, they just lose it. I really believe it was the biggest mistake we made for our son.

(School parent) (I74PB2Y)

Although in initial interviews, most pupils stated that they, rather than their parents, had made the choice to stay at the Middle School for Year 9, many parents attributed the decision to the particular physical or personal nature of their child. Some drew comparisons with other siblings. They viewed factors relating to a large institution as not providing a more suitable learning or social environment compared with a smaller school. For a child who was small in stature, shy, making slow progress at school, fearful of large institutions or even, as one parent stated, “having trouble with puberty”, the Middle School offered comparative security. One parent’s comments echoed those frequently expressed to the researcher:

I felt that high schools as a whole, high school teachers mostly have an attitude of stand and deliver; not teach on a personal basis... and the individual teaching and the personal attitude taken by the teachers towards their students here at the Middle School is guaranteed.

(Parent) (I91PARMi)

Curriculum Delivery: the Difficulties

Teachers’ views on curriculum specialism

One major issue related to curriculum delivery was the Year 9 and 10 teachers’ concern with the extent to which they should offer a specialist approach.

The researcher’s observations in classrooms, together with discussions with the class teachers, suggested that, from the beginning of the second year, each teacher operated in an uneasy compromise between being a specialist subject teacher and a generalist class teacher. From this overall concern, related issues emerged, such as the perception of a preferred integrated programme being fragmented by a timetable and

that teachers were uncomfortable with using unit plans prepared by other teachers. The first issue was reflected in the comments of a Year 9 teacher:

I don't know where I am. I have to dash from subject to subject, like being Phys Ed specialist for a period and then back to the class and I'm fragmented and so are they. I get a Fourth Form Phys Ed class between eleven and twelve. I then have to pack up all the gear and I have to run and switch myself into Health which I've also got to plan for say, the Third Form. Or it might be I've got to run and teach Social Studies with five minutes between it.

(Year 9 teacher) (1145TDK2Y)

The two Year 9 core programmes in the second year showed evidence of the difficulties the teachers encountered. One teacher initially began with an integrated programme but observations in her classroom suggested that her attempts to accommodate the varying needs of the pupils also produced a gradual change from a flexible, often group-based approach towards whole-class teaching. In discussions with her, she agreed that this had happened in order to offer the best use of her time and in order to attend to the difficulty of "covering the curriculum requirements". The move towards a more front-of-class approach also included teaching to subjects and, within two months of the start of the year, the adoption of a subject timetable.

Pupils' views on the curriculum

While in principle, integration of subjects was generally valued by the pupils, it was not appreciated when the theme was extended, especially when the text book information or learning experiences appeared repetitive. The pupils sensed a false rationale when

teachers attempted to integrate subjects within a theme and the limited resources didn't allow a fresh perspective. As one pupil expressed:

Well last year we did rivers, Waikato River and we did it for Science, Social Studies, and English and it got boring.... We did it first period, we did rivers in science, second period. We did it in English, third period. We did it in Social Studies, and in Maths we might calculate how long it is and where all the dams are. But it just got, not really boring, yeah I guess boring because you did it all the time.

(Year 10 pupil) (I156 PTY2Y)

Another Year 10 pupil agreed:

We'd get sick of anything unless you keep feeding the information through. Because if you're just like, twiddling along with this little bit of information and you're trying to stretch it out, it doesn't make it very interesting. But it is if you keep feeding things into it with new stuff.

(Year 10 pupil) (I161Fr2Y)

Third, the pupils were aware that, according to the topic being studied, some subjects had more potential for integration than others. English and Social Studies were seen as complementary but not necessarily extendible into the more quantifiable subjects such as Maths and Science. As one pupil in a group discussion explained:

In Social Studies we go into big projects, and English. The thing with doing it with Maths and Science is you can't focus on specific areas of Maths or specific areas of Science because not everything incorporates in that subject.

One Year 9 teacher, with a responsibility for planning the Science programme, commented:

Its certainly not a motivator when kids think, “Hey, we’ve already done this unit, or done this study.” There needs to be a plan that says that while you may be developing the same concept to a greater level each year, the units that you use to develop that should be different. (Year 9 teacher) I66TDK2Y)

In later discussion with the Year 9 and 10 teachers, all made reference to the pupils’ negative reactions to revisiting earlier topics (monarch butterflies and The Maaori) or venues (Port Waikato and a fresh-water stream). Approaching the same topic from a different perspective was not seen as justifiable from the pupils’ points of view. As one stated:

Doesn’t matter if it’s ‘Conservation’ - saving the Waikato - or what lives in it, say in Science. It’s still water and things isn’t it?

(Year 9 pupil) (I157PSK1Y)

Specialism and pupils’ views on secondary teachers

While comments about individual secondary school teachers were often favourable, especially those who taught subjects in which the pupils had achieved well, some pupils did not view their secondary teachers favourably. If attendance at the Middle School was as a result of expulsion from a secondary school or if the pupils indicated that they had difficulty coping at a secondary school, this might have been predicted and understandable. But, it was not the case in any of the six interviewed. Two observed:

Some teachers, they're just plain out dizzy and don't know what they're on about.

(Year 9 transfer pupil) (I104PHH1Y)

Probably that they [the secondary teachers] weren't concerned that much. It's just like, "Oh another class, get them out of the way."

(Year 9 transfer pupil) (I112PTS1Y)

Comments about the adequacy of teaching in the secondary schools were offered as individual comments, rather than showing any broad agreement. For example:

I felt that at [secondary school] the teachers weren't really dedicated enough. They didn't really take time out to teach you much.

(Year 10 transfer pupil) (I106PVP1Y)

When asked about how well the teachers at his former coeducational school in another city knew his work habits, another pupil offered:

They were sort of like cruisy. They didn't really push you that much to do your work.

(Year 10 transfer pupil) (I105PBr2Y)

They were separate teachers. I don't think they would know what each other was doing.

(Year 10 transfer pupil) (I117PSH2Y)

Curriculum Delivery; the Tensions

The role of specialism

A further tension was related to an exchange of subject teaching. At a Year 9 and 10 teachers syndicate meeting it was agreed that each teacher would take responsibility for a curriculum area and plan the programme for the other teachers. Some exchange of subject teaching was developed. One teacher taught the French classes, another the Health and Physical Education and the third the Computer classes. A remodelled timetable was produced. This identified specialist teaching times and also the use of particular facilities, including the gymnasium, the library and the computers. The establishment of this more complex timetable implicitly gave the Year 9 and 10 teachers priority use of the special facilities. This change in style of curriculum delivery not only affected other teachers' timetables but challenged the traditional organisation of the school. Core subjects were usually taught in the mornings and less cognitively demanding subjects reserved for the afternoons. One Year 8 class teacher commented:

We have had major problems with spreading things across. The classic is the gym timetabling; the fact that it gets timetabled to sixty kids and the rest of the school which makes up the whole two hundred odd students misses out and they [Year 9 and 10 teachers] tell us they're timetabled and they have to have it all this time. Yet we've been told they're not meant to be working to a timetable. They're meant to be able to be flexible like the rest of us. But we've missed out there.

(Year 8 class teacher) (I29Y8T2Y)

Another issue concerned a Year 9 teacher's awareness that his qualification in one area was not reciprocated by the other teachers who had responsibility for planning his Mathematics, English and Social Studies. He commented:

No one is picking up the load for me in other areas as was the suggestion when I took the job. They said, 'That's okay, you'll be doing all the Phys Ed and Health. Someone else will be planning your English and Social Studies'. Now, in reality, that's not working. There is a gap there. I would say that it would have to be clarified very clearly so the other teachers understand they're in specialist positions also. They are supplying the Phys Ed and Health teacher with their areas which they're not very strong on.

(Year 9 teacher) (I146TDK1Y)

The adoption of a more structured, subject-centred approach to curriculum delivery also affected other teachers in the syndicate. A Year 9 teacher who had led the move towards specialisation, attributed increasing classroom management problems to the fragmented timetable. She saw herself as adopting an approach to teaching that was more akin to that found in secondary schools but which, in her view, turned out to be not appropriate in the current situation. Her frustrations eventually led to her resignation. She was replaced by a teacher who had previous experience as a long-term relieving teacher with a Year 8 class.

Another teacher expressed concern about the move towards a more specialised approach. The syndicate decided to return to the original organisation. The teacher described the process as:

Even though we said we weren't timetable driven, we actually became trapped into that. To think we actually did get into being timetable driven. Unconsciously it sort of came about. It evolved that we started to be like a secondary school and all of a sudden we threw our hands up in horror about a month or so ago. We all thought, hey what are we doing here? We've lost the plot. So there has been a radical change in the last six weeks. Now we're going back to what we used to do and that's the primary [school] way of doing things.

(Year 9 teacher) (I66TDK2Y)

At a subsequent meeting of the syndicate, the timetable was reorganised. It was decided that although the across-syndicate Mathematics organisation would continue for the first period of each day, teachers would take their own classes for some of the subjects previously specialised - for example, Health and Physical Education. Teachers agreed to take responsibility for their own planning in subjects that had previously been planned by individuals in the team, including Science and Social Studies. French was offered only as part of the option programme. One teacher's response as to whether the change was beneficial to the pupils was:

Well I believe it is. Just for a start I can plan and take control of my own units. I know what's in them. I know what I want out of them. I know I can assess better. They [the pupils] were severely disadvantaged in the first term with exams because that's where I realised this is not working because exams were set by somebody else for their own content which was not valid for here.

(Year 9 teacher) (I108TDK2Y)

The influence of a secondary school model of curriculum delivery

Continued experimentation with curriculum delivery by the Year 9 and 10 teachers included a move towards what they saw as typifying a more secondary school approach. It began with a Year 9 teacher's suggestion at a syndicate meeting, that they should adopt formal class examinations as a means of assessment. The teacher suggested that examinations would not only indicate each pupil's progress in terms of coverage of the curriculum but the experience of sitting them would be practice for secondary school. She acknowledged to the researcher that her opinion was influenced by a secondary school associate and that setting examinations for the Year 9 and 10 pupils was a logical extension of the trend towards specialisation that had been adopted. The principal's response to the use of examinations was:

While I think we do need to establish our own reason for [having exams], we also have to be conscious of two things; one, we still have parents who are traditionalists in some areas in some ways, and we also have schools that we can't alienate.

(Middle School principal) (128PIJ2Y0)

The principal's support for examinations was agreeable to all three teachers, but for varying reasons. The Year 10 teacher was aware that his pupils would be continuing to Year 11 at a secondary school the following year. One of the Year 9 teachers saw examinations as an extension of her move towards a whole-class, subject-centred approach. Another Year 9 teacher, who claimed to favour an integrated, class-based delivery approach, found himself having to make increasing compromises between his philosophy and that of having responsibility for planning and teaching in a specialist

subject. Samples from three interviews throughout the first part of the second year indicated his change of focus:

All right, so I want it to be like a primary school system. If I want to do language all morning I'm going to do language all morning.

(Year 9 teacher, second year, term 1, week 3) (I28TDKIM2Y)

I would like a more team approach to planning and where everyone identifies an area of expertise and plans for it and we share our plans but we all teach like primary school teachers. That would be the ideal.

(Year 9 teacher, second year, term 1, week 7) (I67TDKIJ2Y)

We're going to do it like secondary. Use our talents. Keep to a timetable. Everyone and the kids knows where we are then.

(Year 9 teacher; second year, term 2, week 7) (FNTDK2Y)

At a syndicate meeting at the end of the second term there were varying degrees of support for the use of examinations. While the three Year 9 and 10 teachers agreed that examinations indicated the coverage of the curriculum and that they were useful for report writing, one teacher was critical of the content validity of some.

Towards the end of the second year, curriculum delivery had returned to a more integrated form, one which had originally been envisaged by the principal and which had been discussed with the teacher of the first Year 9 class at its inception.

Along with a gradual shift towards a more subject centred approach there had emerged timetabling and management frustrations. As the principal reflected:

I don't sense that there was any deliberate attempt to move things that way, because as I said to them when I talked about this, if we go back twelve months and we focus on the very things that we're talking about now, they were happening twelve months ago. When you look at that integrated unit on the Waikato River for example, it was so effective. That was happening twelve months ago. Why have we now gotten to a stage where we're looking at the structure of the timetable driving what we do?

(Middle School principal) (I68P2Y)

Over the period of a year, the philosophy behind curriculum delivery had moved a full cycle. Beginning with an integrated, largely class-teacher approach, it had experienced different versions of specialisation that, in turn had affected timetabling and planning. By the end of the second year the Year 9 and 10 syndicate had returned to the original, integrated plan.

Teaching in the Options programme

The introduction of the Options programme was perceived differently by individual staff members, who responded in varying ways. One group of four Year 7 and 8 teachers, each of whom initially did not see themselves as capable of teaching Year 9 and 10 pupils, later developed confidence in their ability to offer something to the programme. At least two other teachers deliberately upskilled themselves in particular areas in order to offer an option. In this way, the Middle School indirectly offered

professional development for the staff. It might be suggested that the addition of subjects such as Horticulture and Economics could be directly attributed to this change in teacher behaviour.

However, for some of the Year 7 and 8 teachers, the initial interest in being part of a new programme, began to wane in the second half of the year. Two decided that a more tangible reward for their efforts was more preferable than job satisfaction. For these teachers, assisting in the Year 9 and 10 programme involved competing demands on their time and compromising what they saw as their core activity - teaching a homeroom class. They admitted that they would have appreciated compensatory non-teaching periods, more pay, or an increase in their budget for their school-related use of their cars. One Year 7 teacher said:

I personally have been delivering two programmes for the price of one - or three programmes. I'm paid as a Scale A teacher. I'm not given any extra personally. I don't receive anything for planning, teaching, implementing, assessing and evaluating two Third [Year 9] and Fourth Form [Year 10] programmes. I don't get anything for that other than when I ask for release time because I'm so stressed out I need it.

(Year 7 teacher) (I115TPa2Y)

Nevertheless, while the additional commitment was acknowledged, most teachers valued the idea of offering interest and extension activities for the pupils

By the end of the second term the Year 9 and 10 syndicate had adopted a pattern of curriculum delivery that included across-class teaching in Maths, largely class-based

teaching for other core subjects, specialisation in French, Technology, Technicraft, and Physical Education. In addition, the Options programme operated on one afternoon each week and at the end of three other days as part of an extended school day.

The Social Perspective

This section focusses on the themes that were significant in the development of the social environment of the classroom. These included the supportive social interaction shown by the teacher and pupils, the opportunities for leadership and the security of the environment.

The Supportive Classroom Environment

The teacher

Observations of the first Year 9 teacher's interactions with pupils suggested that they could be largely divided into three approaches. The most frequent approach was a teacher-lead discussion, based around the use of a common text book. These sessions usually concerned discussing a piece of text, problem-solving a particular question using a resource book or marking work and discussing the answers. A second approach included the pupils doing exercises from a text book. Pupils seeking assistance often approached the teacher at their desk. A third approach was the pupils working at group or individual tasks. These were planned to cover a theme or topic study and were usually of two or three weeks duration. Sharing ideas and information in group tasks appeared to operate supportively and flexibly. There was occasional change in group membership between tasks. As one pupil commented, "We all get along. You see, we know each other." In all three approaches some pupils interacted freely with each other and with the teacher. Others would lose attention and choose to continue the task in

their own way, attend to another task or even attend to non-scholastic behaviour. Sometimes the teacher or another pupil would redirect seemingly misfocussed pupil back on to the current task. Usually, this was received positively by the pupil concerned.

Pupils commented favourably about the nature of the teaching; their comments also reflected the generally supportive social climate of the classroom. To the researcher, it appeared that the varied approaches accommodated the range of abilities and attitudes within the class.

The class teacher's comments about the first Year 9 (and later Year 10) class were characterised by two features. First, he accepted that the class environment would only operate effectively if there were a supportive and friendly atmosphere. The teacher saw himself promoting this through positive comments based on an intimate knowledge of each pupil and his good humour. As he stated:

We enjoy being recognised by our successes. It's also a culture where we discuss things fairly openly. They feel supported, or we feel supported in that environment, and it's non-threatening.

(Year 10 class teacher) (I81TKJ1Y)

A second feature was apparent whenever the Year 10 teacher spoke of the class environment. General statements were almost invariably supported by an example from individual pupils. In answer to a question concerning what characterised the Year 10 social environment, the teacher offered:

They're allowed to be successful.... [Name of pupil] just won the fourth form [Year 10] speech competition which I was delighted by; an excellent speech; a very very good speech. ... I wonder, and I doubt personally, that he would have had the audacity to stand up in front of a larger group of peers, maybe at a bigger school and be prepared to do that because it might have meant social... being ostracised. But that is one of the crucial things that hasn't happened. They're allowed to be successful and they feel less pressure in that regard.

(Year 10 teacher) (I119TKJ2Y)

In other instances the class teacher mentioned the more personal support each pupil might expect.

[Pupil's name] is the sort of student who is very quickly discouraged and needs one on one support and especially emotional support. He needs to be supported and he needs to be told... to have his successes pointed out to him. Maybe he'd get that in a larger school. I don't know.

(Year 10 teacher) (I119TKJ2Y)

The pupils' social interaction

The social interaction of the pupils in the first Year 9 and later Year 10 class was not unlike what might be expected in a small class; one in which most members had known each other for at least two years while at the Middle School. Many had shared primary school together. Interaction between pupils was generally characterised by tolerance, appreciation of good humour, a relatively free exchange of ideas, familiarity and frequent commentary on shared experiences and achievement at school. The researcher

rarely observed any verbal put-downs, jibes or aggressive behaviour. There was a distinct difference amongst the pupils in terms of the volume of talk. A small group, usually near the front of the class, talked the most. Some, usually at the back of the room, rarely commented and talked mostly with a person sitting nearby. Yet, in answer to whether they thought they were restricted in being able to contribute to class discussion, these pupils felt they could contribute whenever they chose. It was just that they chose not to and left it to those that did. However, they readily contributed when called upon to do so by their teacher:

I feel [the class teacher] is okay. Sometimes he leads you on but you can say your ideas okay here. When we were doing speeches he helped me with my topic and when I changed [topic] he was okay about that too. When we're talking about speeches in class, I just come in and out about that when I like to.

(Year 10 pupil) (I121SK2Y)

Pupils who transferred to the class from another school acknowledged the social support they received:

It's good to have mates here. I know [two names added] from soccer and they help me in class. Now we get around together here and at soccer.

(Year 10 pupil) (I127GW2Y)

Two of the pupils who transferred into the class from secondary schools admitted they had experienced severe social problems at their previous schools. They also recognised and supported the friendly social environment at the Middle School.

Leadership opportunities

From the outset, the principal and Year 9 teacher expected the older pupils to be role models for the younger pupils. The discipline and management policy of the school would apply in the same way to a four year school as it would to a two year school. The major difference envisaged by the principal would be that the school would be less homogeneous socially and a wider range of ages would allow for the older pupils to take mature leadership in social roles. They were expected to be captains of the sports houses and teams and to take responsibility for some duties such as librarians, equipment monitors and class representative on the School Council. In the majority of social events this took place.

Most of the Year 7 and 8 classroom teachers interviewed were supportive of the social implications of the additional Year 9 and 10 classes. Three of the five Year 8 teachers commented on how they appreciated watching how pupils they had taught coped with the senior years. All commented on the benefits of added maturity of the pupils and how it added a leadership dimension to the school.

One teacher at a parent meeting observed:

We know them very well too, so there isn't the same, perhaps tendency that you might get in secondary schools. So, if something's going wrong we know very quickly and react on it immediately so we don't get that gap there, you know with a small group. And we've known them for three years so they're not new people. We know them and they know us. I guess that the size of the school means that every teacher in the school; they may not know every student by name, but they

certainly know them well enough to be able to talk to them and to respond to them.

(Year 8 teacher) (I53TSH2Y)

Three teachers commented on the added maturity of the Year 10 pupils and all drew comparisons with the younger pupils. A relieving teacher who taught at all levels of the school made the following observation about the Year 10 pupils:

Well, they're more mature. I mean, when you look at the difference between Form One [Year 7] over there and then you look at Form Two [Year 8] and then you look at this particular [Year 10] class... those Form Ones are still quite babyish. And when you get to the Form Twos, well they're busy thinking they're really just quite cool... and they're quite hard to cope with. behaviour-wise. But you can't quite appeal to them the same way as you can this [Year 10] lot.

(Relieving Year 10 teacher) (I69TMi2Y)

Another teacher observed:

There's a different culture in being a fourth former [Year 10] in a big school because you're still there to be picked on, and a culture here whereby they've developed into mature individuals.

(Year 10 teacher) (I71TMM2Y)

A Secure Environment

Many teachers in the Middle School thought that the school catered for some pupils for whom secondary school would appear to be a challenge that they preferred to delay. They considered that, from a social comparison with the secondary alternative, the Middle School offered a secure environment. The social environment included a majority of pupils who had known each other for several years as part of a small social community; one that allowed opportunity for social leadership. One teacher summarised what was implicit in many comments about the older pupils:

I think it has given them a chance to grow up and I think when I look at some of them in that fourth form room now and know that they're going somewhere else next year, they'll cope with it a lot better. They've just developed, grown up I guess. They've got confidence in themselves. They've had a chance to do that. They've been the big fish in the little sea here, and I think some of them need that.

(Year 9 teacher) (I69TMI2Y)

A few teachers commented that the Middle School had attracted pupils who would find it difficult to cope with secondary schooling. Some made assumptions about why certain pupils had chosen to remain at the Middle School in terms of not being able to cope socially in the secondary system. A Year 8 teacher's comments on the older pupils included:

When I looked at that first third form [Year 9], most of the children that were in there, there was a reason for them being there because of either personality, academic, physical size; things like that, that it was easier for them to stay and be

in a secure, safe, little environment that to be over there where there's a thousand other kids. And for one reason or another they were going to get picked on. And now when you look at those people they're not like that at all.

(Year 8 teacher) (I69TMM2Y)

The parents also mentioned the secure environment offered by the Middle School. They approved the family-like atmosphere of the Middle School. The teachers were seen as being friendly, supportive and approachable by both parents and pupils. Many commented on the support given to their child. In part, the secure environment was attributed to the principal's attitude. Comments were made by some parents in terms of his "having his hand on the pulse" and included: "Can walk in at any time and talk to [principal named] about anything." "The principal is the head. He sorts things out." "He [pupil] needs extra help. He gets it. Problem solved."

In contrast, most parents were critical of the five secondary schools which their other children had attended. The most frequent comments related to coping with new subjects, teachers vague knowledge of their pupils, the relative inaccessibility of teachers, inadequate classroom management, teacher attitudes and bullying. Phrases associated with the parents' comments included "bullying", "couldn't handle", "If you're not bright they don't teach you", "adjusting", "too big". One offered, "If he had played up in class, I'm sure the teachers would have got to know him a lot faster."

Given this information, it was not surprising that some parents approached the principal concerning extending the class span of the Middle School to include Year 11.

The principal, although privately doubting the wisdom of this idea, offered to call a meeting of school parents to discuss the notion. At the parent meeting, which was also attended by two staff members and four members of the Board of Trustees, the principal explained that the notion of middle schooling was best realised when it catered for ages 10 to 14 or 15, [which approximated Year 7 to 10 classes] as he and some researchers regarded that as a distinct developmental stage. He also explained that the Ministry of Education had agreed to upgrade the schools buildings and resources to that akin to an Area School.⁴ This would include the provision of two extra classrooms and two specialist rooms for the school. His viewpoint was that the middle school concept best facilitated Years 7 to 10, that he did not wish the school roll to grow significantly larger and that the challenges of resourcing a school beyond that of Year 10, were too great at the present time.

The common factor of the five parents who supported the notion of extending the school was that it would offer an extension of what was currently proving successful for their children. However, they accepted the principals' viewpoint. At the conclusion of the research project, no further approach had been made.

⁴ In New Zealand an Area School is a rural school that accommodates Year 0 to 12 pupils

Summary

In summary, the main findings relating to the development of the Middle School from a two-year to a four-year institution were:

- The extension of a school around largely existing resources had implications for the provision of and access to those resources.
- In a decentralised decision-making environment the senior syndicate of the school made decisions about organisation and access to resources that affected the whole school.
- As the Middle School grew in size, the decision-making structures remained largely unchanged.
- The methods of curriculum delivery in the Year 9 and 10 classes changed as the teachers experienced varying challenges to their teaching and organisational approaches.
- Teachers were unsure about the extent to which subject delivery should be specialised or integrated.
- The Options programme was regarded as a necessary means of offering curriculum and interest choices for the pupils. While it attracted a range of teacher talents to the programme, some found the additional workload excessive. Some curriculum areas were more efficiently accommodated by private providers (e.g. Ceramics and Japanese).
- Although some examples of integration of curriculum subjects or topics were planned, many were the result of teachers making use of opportunities for integration that emerged during a lesson. It was uncertain into which category the more useful examples fitted.

- Issues of equity were often raised. These included access to resources, equal workloads and recognition of them, fair sharing of curriculum responsibilities and decision-making.
- The pupils and teachers in the Year 9 and 10 classes had a strong sense of a cohesive community.
- The pupils did not appreciate changes in ground rules or what they perceived to be forced attempts at subject integration.
- The pupils had a keen awareness of their progress at school. At the middle School this tended to be explained in descriptive terms. At secondary progress was shown in terms of marks or grades or comparisons with others.
- Pupils who joined the Middle School from other schools appreciated the comparatively supportive environment and teacher knowledge of their progress.

From an organisational perspective, the development of the Middle School included challenges concerning the availability of resources and the nature of curriculum delivery. Different forms of curriculum delivery were adopted but at the end of the second year, the Year 9 and 10 teachers returned to an integrated programme that was largely typical of the rest of the school. In turn, this development had implications for other factors, such as how teachers in the Year 7 and 8 classes viewed the development of the Year 9 and 10 classes, decision-making processes within the school, and what kind of timetable best suited the Year 9 and 10 programmes within the whole school structure.

The Transfer Pupils offered clear opinions concerning the differences in curriculum delivery at the two institutions. Some made unfavourable contrasts with the Middle School environment, but to a certain extent this may be explained by an

unfavourable learning environment at secondary school being the motivation to join the Middle School.

Socially and educationally, the Year 9 and 10 programme was not seen by those involved with it as one of the less challenging stages of secondary education. For many pupils it offered a chance to experiment in new areas of interest, to attempt some School Certificate examination subjects and to show leadership in the Middle School. For most of the Year 9 and 10 pupils it was a time of challenge and success in an environment that was similar to that of their previous two years at the Middle School. Evidence suggested that the pupils' social environment contrasted with their secondary counterparts. In part, parents' comparisons between middle school and secondary school environments were causal factors in their considering extending the ages and classes accommodated by the Middle School.

Most aspects of the development of the Year 9 and 10 classes were subsumed by the theme of how the curriculum had to be delivered. Curriculum delivery was the justification for any organisational changes.

The next chapter focuses on the Year 10 pupils transfer to secondary schools.

CHAPTER 7

TRANSITION TO SECONDARY SCHOOL

Introduction

The first class of Year 10 pupils from the Middle School transferred to four secondary schools at the start of the new school year. Two schools were single-sex boys and girls schools, one inner city and the other suburban. The other two schools were coeducational, one a state school and the other an independent school.

This chapter deals with the pupils' transition to secondary schools. They are referred to as the 'Transfer Group' (Appendix 19). The chapter is divided into three main themes that were associated with transition; the pupils' social adjustment, including relationships with other pupils and teachers, organisational matters and, coping with schoolwork. Within each theme, the pupils' transition is described in terms of the evolution of the transition, from foreseen issues about transition (pre-transfer), initial settling into the new environments at their secondary schools and, once established, reflection on life in the new settings.

The Pupils' Social Adjustment

In discussion with pupils in the Transfer Group at the end of their Year 10 at the Middle School, prior to their transfer to secondary schools, comments about social adjustment were frequently mentioned. As most of the pupils already had friends at secondary school, they acknowledged that they would mix with friends that they already knew socially. Their explanations suggested that this would provide a certain amount of security in the new setting. Most also expected to make new friends and develop new friendship groups. One member of the Transfer Group explained:

I'll stick with [pupil named]. We've been friends since... for ages. We can help each other. But we'll have new friends, I guess. Only to be expected amongst that crowd.

(Year 10 pupil, pre-transfer) (I181MTPT)

Results from the pre-transfer, Picture Interpretation survey supported these perceptions. They indicated that more than half the comments (58%) expressed by the Transfer Group regarding transition, related to social interaction and relationships with teachers (Appendix 20). An analysis of the 'Self' category indicated that most of the comments (all coded in the 'neutral' category) were also about acceptance by others. From a social interaction perspective, 86 of the 114 responses (75%) concerned social relations in the new school. Generally, most pupils held neutral or negative perceptions about what the new school would be like (92%). Unlike the Q-Sort results, in the pre-transfer Picture Interpretation survey, little concern was indicated about schoolwork and nothing positive was stated about their personal feelings concerning the move to a new school. The results of the pre-transfer, Picture Interpretation survey indicated little positiveness about starting at a new school. There was an overwhelming expression of neutrality or concern (Appendices 21.1 to 21.3).

The Year 10 class teacher's comments echoed many of those made by the pupils. His examples were drawn from how he expected individual pupils to cope and he commented on aspects such as, the "larger audience" for those who were socially confident, coping with a larger organisation in terms of a timetable and specialisation, and their added maturity. But, he expected that the added two years at the Middle

School would be beneficial to the pupils in their coping with the social aspects of transition:

They've had a chance to grow up here and that extra maturity will help them cope with the rigours of next year. Again, it's confidence and success.

(Year 10 teacher) (I202TKJPT)

The principal predicted:

I don't sense at the moment that our fourth formers [Year 10] will struggle to cope socially with the transition. I think they will struggle to accept it because I think they're going to find life pretty dull and boring.

(Middle School principal) (I175PLF2Y)

Settling in

Initial friendship groups were based on a continuation of previous alliances made in the Year 10 class at the Middle School and also friends from the area in which they lived. Some of these had joined their secondary schools at Year 9, but were friends in out-of-school settings. Additionally, membership of a sports team was a common factor. At one school, membership of a particular church provided the basis for continued friendship. All members of the Transfer Group, when asked at their separate secondary schools, how they were getting along with others, agreed that they were enjoying their friends and the out-of-class times. Although most friendships were still based on the Middle School experience and sports groups, some had extended their friendship groups. One said, "the change isn't too hard as long as you know a lot of people and you can get help." Over half of the Transfer Group had older brothers or sisters who had

begun secondary school at Year 9. Some of these had mentioned the rigours of bullying or harassment as part of supposed induction rituals into a school. No evidence of this was mentioned during the settling in phase of transition.

Results from the Q-Sort survey suggested that throughout the transition to secondary, pupils in the Transfer Group retained a largely positive attitude towards themselves and their schools (Appendix 24). It is suggested that the timing of the administration of the Q-Sort might have influenced the pupils' stronger regard for social satisfaction in the Middle School, but this still retained a high rating at secondary school. Possibly, the pupils' developing maturity, as indicated in both interviews and their selection of responses in the Q-Sort survey, may be a factor in the results. This has implications for those commentators who regard transition as having adverse affects on pupils. Some pupils commented on their gains in personal confidence as a result of their additional time in the Middle School, and that this allowed them to cope well for the first part of their secondary schooling. However, the case studies' data indicated that forming friendships outside the initial groups was not without challenges. This is discussed in Chapter 8.

Adjusting to a New Organisation

Preconceptions about Transition to Secondary School

Many of the preconceptions were related to organisational factors that might be expected in a larger institution. Comments about the school organisation included a fear of getting lost and concern with finding their way between classes. Several expected

that their added maturity would be an advantage. As one pupil said, “Well, there might be the odd little problem but I mean I’m old enough to handle it.”

As Year 11 is traditionally the year in which pupils sit the national School Certificate examinations, some pupils expected more schoolwork, (including homework), and some expected that they would be using specialist facilities such as a Science laboratory.

It’ll be the Fifth Form [Year 11] and that’s School Cert year and you’ll have to get used to a timetable and going to different teachers. That would be my only real concern; just the change in the environment.

(Year 10 pupil, pre-transfer) (I85PMEPT)

Settling in

Most of the Year 11 pupils, [the Transfer Group] admitted that their first encounter with their new secondary school was confusing and challenging. These were to be short-lived. For most, once they knew where they were to be and at what times their confidence returned. In two schools, this was assisted by being issued with a timetable form and a map of the school. In three schools a peer support programme operated in which Year 12 and 13 pupils were paired with the new arrivals. Generally, across the four secondary schools the pupils were soon confident about knowing the organisational aspects of their school. This was illustrated in one school where the researcher had arranged for the pupils to discuss their transition with him and to answer a survey. The survey was completed a few minutes into the subsequent subject period. The pupils, aware that they had a legitimate excuse for being out of class, chose not to return to the class and to go to the sports field instead.

These perceptions were supported with evidence from pre and post transfer Picture Interpretation surveys. The results of the Picture Interpretation surveys tended to confirm perceptions expressed in the discussions with the pupils and in the Q-Sort analysis. Although most pre-transfer perceptions about secondary schools indicated a concern with social relations with teachers and other pupils, 24 per cent of them related to school organisation; nearly all in the 'neutral' or 'adverse' categories (Appendices 21.1 to 21.3). After transition, when the organisation of the new school was understood, responses indicated a diminished concern with organisation (from 24% to 10%) and a continuing increased concern with relations with other pupils (from 27% to 44%) (Appendices 22.1 to 22.3). These results reflected the pupils' oral comments, in which most claimed that, once they were aware of their timetable and the location of the classrooms, adaptation to the new organisation posed few problems.

Coping with Schoolwork

Preparation to Cope at Secondary School

From the beginning of the establishment of the Middle School there had been a clear understanding by the principal and the Year 9 teacher that ultimately the pupils would be moving into a secondary environment that would be different in methods of curriculum delivery to that offered at the Middle School. While curriculum delivery in the Middle School was seen to be an extension of that currently offered by the Years 7 and 8 structures, the principal was aware that the difference was not to be such that it would set up the pupils for challenges that they could not cope with in the Year 11 secondary school environment. He stated:

I don't want to deliver the students into failure and we run that risk unless there are some compromises, because they are moving into a culture that is still substantially different, even at Form Five [Year 11] level, but its not so different that they can't cope.

(Principal of the Middle School) (I668PLF2Y)

In the previous chapter it was suggested that an awareness by the principal and the Year 9 and 10 teachers that the pupils were being prepared to cope with a different academic environment in Year 11 may have influenced the decisions and compromises made, particularly those concerning the role of specialisation, the timetable, and the use of examinations. During a time when the Year 9 and 10 teachers were offering a more specialised, timetable-driven approach, one of the Year 9 teachers explained how she was preparing her pupils for the learning environment in a secondary school:

First of all, I try to do what they do in a secondary school. So first of all I try to give them what they will get in a secondary school.

(Year 9 Teacher) (I45TPF2Y)

This awareness of preparation extended beyond the Year 9 and 10 teachers. A Year 8 teacher, in commenting on the cumulative nature of the curriculum across the four years at the Middle School observed:

I see them [the Year 9 and 10 teachers] as offering programmes that will extend them and to develop the kids in all areas, but also to give them coping

mechanisms to cope with the fifth form [Year 11]. Because otherwise, if they don't have the mechanisms to cope with the fifth form they'll fail and the success of the third and fourth form here will be wasted if they don't know how to cope in the fifth form.

(Year 8 teacher) (I73TVi2Y)

While nearly all the pupils were confident that their preparation at the Middle School was adequate, they expected secondary school to be different. A Year 10 pupil commented:

I'm going to have to be more independent. I don't think there'll be so much talking with the teacher or having a teacher looking over your shoulder and being there to help. I suppose it's a question of personal discipline.

(Year 10 pupil, pre-transfer) (I100PJBPT)

Settling in

During the initial settling in to their new secondary schools, few subject-related comments were made. These were to come later. General comments about the different teaching styles contrasted with what they had been used to. These included teachers "who did a lot of talking", the significant amount of time spent copying notes from overhead transparencies or the whiteboard, and the different kind of help offered by the teachers. In one discussion, the pupils commented on the difference between help associated with asking questions and that to do with solving problems. The former required a short answer; the latter involved explanations.

Reflecting on the new environment

Once the pupils had adjusted to their new learning environments, they offered comments about their schoolwork.

The first concerned inadequate content coverage in some subjects. This was particularly evident where a teacher assumed that the whole class had covered a particular topic in the previous year and was unaware that some pupils hadn't. In one secondary school the four pupils were obviously anxious about this and felt handicapped by not having had learning experiences of the others in the class. Three pupils in a subject class at another school thought their teacher was aware of their deficiency but regarded it as the pupils responsibility to 'catch up'. When the researcher raised this issue with a teacher with whom he was negotiating access to the school, he was informed that offering additional teaching to those who had missed that particular content was of doubtful use because the pupils from the Middle School were, in his view, inadequately prepared in that subject. No comments were made by the pupils that their teachers had explicitly informed them that they were inadequately prepared. The pupils however expressed clear ideas in terms of the adequacy of individual subject content coverage. In one school, the pupils agreed that the coverage in Science and History had been adequate but Geography was distinctly inadequate. In another school, comment was made concerning the inadequacy of the Physics content and that the topic, genetics had not been covered. Predictably, those who had passed subject areas in School Certificate in the Middle School regarded their coverage in those subjects as adequate.

Second, in some curriculum areas, the selection of different examples for study purposes was apparent to the pupils but was not regarded by them as significant in affecting their achievement. Examples included reference to a different novel in English or the selection of a different example of an industrialised country in Social Studies. One pupil in each of two schools made reference to the varied coverage in Mathematics content between the Middle School and their present schools. Some of the Mathematics content (particularly in Algebra) that had been covered in the Year 10 class at the Middle School was regarded as part of the Year 11 content in the secondary schools. Conversely, the pupils reported that the teachers assumed they were familiar with other topics in the Mathematics curriculum when this was not the case. However, both pupils did not regard this as a significant source of concern.

In general, pupil concerns about curriculum content between the two transfer schools appeared to dissipate by the end of the first term of Year 11 and the focus was clearly on coping with current academic programmes.

Third, as might be expected, in discussions with the pupils, the researcher noted frequent references to curriculum organisation in a comparatively larger institution. The pupils referred to the larger class sizes and implicitly their arrangement ("Five rows of six desks"). In most schools the organisation was five periods each day and, although the teachers were not as familiar with them as the teachers at the Middle School had been, the secondary teachers were seen as helpful. One pupil at a large single-sex secondary school observed:

The classes are bigger. Well, most of them are. But because they change every day, like you've got five different classes every day, you don't quite know everybody. I mean, familiar faces, not names.

(Year 11 pupil, post-transfer) (I153PMIPT)

In addition, in one school a major concern involved the maintenance of an Art folder, an activity not practised by the Middle School. Secondary schools appeared to have different policies concerning the pupils keeping a folder. Some Art teachers viewed the Art work undertaken in Year 10 as a basis for continuing activities into Year 11. Other Art teachers regarded the Year 11 curriculum as a stand-alone section and only activities in that year were part of the preparation for School Certificate. The specialist Art teacher at one secondary school adopted the former policy and not only regarded the folder as a cumulative record of activities undertaken but as part of the requirements for the internal assessment component for the School Certificate examination. Pupils in the Transfer Group felt they had been disadvantaged by not keeping a folder.

Generally, for most of the Transfer Group, the issues associated with transition were eventually accommodated. Two pupils who attended a secondary coeducational church school commented that they found the schoolwork to be less integrative, more formal, and much of it consisted of copying notes. Socially, they made friends easily, though found that much of their interval and lunch time was spent "hanging around." The pupils considered that their curriculum preparation in the Middle School had been adequate in all subjects. In any case, emergent shortcomings were readily attended to through help from their teachers, which they appreciated (though the easy access to

teachers was not a typical feature across all schools, as noted in the example earlier). They could attend after school tutorials or approach their teachers at lunch time.

In general, across the Transfer Group, the Picture Interpretation and Q-Sort surveys indicated a decline in satisfaction with schoolwork between the end of Year 10 at the Middle School and the beginning of Year 11 at secondary schools. This was particularly evident in the Q-Sort survey. In Year 10, 29 of the 34 responses were positive (85%) but in Year 11, only 10 of 16 (62%). Although this is not a significant difference ($X^2 = 2.09$), nevertheless the data suggested a trend indicating that the pupils were not as confident about their schoolwork satisfaction in their secondary schools as they had been in the Middle School (Appendix 23).

As indicated in the interviews, after the initial impact of coping with a new organisation, the largest challenges at secondary school appeared to be associated with schoolwork. It is not surprising that this was the only cluster of items in the Q-Sort that indicated a significant difference. Other implications for coping with transition are drawn from the case studies, described in Chapter Eight.

Imagined Issues That Did Not Occur

One problem associated with transition that the Middle School principal foresaw concerned that of pupils who had passed subjects in School Certificate in Year 10 being “put in a pen where they will vegetate” when they entered Year 11 at the secondary schools. He considered these pupils might find themselves unable to advance their subjects at secondary school because Year 11 programmes traditionally focussed on School Certificate subjects. The principal based this assumption on experiences with Year 8 pupils at the Middle School who, on entering secondary school for Year 9, were

not able to continue certain specialised interests, especially languages, because they were too advanced for the programmes offered at secondary school. He stated:

We can quote examples of students moving on with a level of expertise and being told, “You will have to wait a year because your level of ability is above the form three [Year 9] students. Once they’ve caught you up, you can hook back into the programme, i.e wait a year, start it up in form four [Year 10].” Now I’m going to bounce up and down if that happens to our students [in Year 11] because they have every right, as every school is expected to do, to be picked up at the level they’re at and moved on from there.

(Middle School principal) (I53PLFE1Y)

In actuality, results from the present research do not support the principal’s concern. Contrary to the principal’s perceived inflexibility of programme organisations in upper secondary schools, all 12 pupils in the Transfer Group with subject passes in the School Certificate examinations were able to be accommodated at their secondary schools. Each was able to enrol in subject classes that continued their level of study. This included two pupils who, although having passes in School Certificate subjects, (one in English and one in Maths), chose to repeat the year in order to achieve higher marks.

In part, the accommodation of those pupils in the Transfer Group, with varied subject passes in School Certificate into secondary school programme may be attributable to their own initiatives. The Middle School Year 10 class teacher reported that, once aware of their passes in School Certificate subjects, many of the pupils contacted different secondary schools in order to select the one which could best

accommodate them. He recalled one pupil, who, as a result of such contacts, decided that attending a transition course at a Polytechnic was preferable. Choices were also made for reasons other than academic ones. One pupil decided to attend a certain secondary school for social and sporting reasons until he could obtain a job with a courier firm.

But, in terms of curriculum content, for those whose progress along subject continuums is interrupted by a change of schools, the experiences of the Transfer Group have significant implications concerning curriculum continuity, for liaison between middle schools and the secondary schools to which they contribute.

Summary

Implications that might be drawn from the findings are discussed in detail in Chapter 9. However, the data collected concerning the evolution of a middle school and the transfer of its first pupils to secondary schools suggests significant implications for the provision of middle schooling. A summary of the main findings includes:

- Apart from the initial adjustment to the secondary schools' organisations, transition into the new and larger environment was generally readily accommodated. Induction programmes, peer support programmes and having an older sibling who had attended the school assisted in easing transition.
- Most of the Transfer Group favoured their choice to attend the Middle School, would repeat the experience if it was possible and their advice to younger siblings included that they stay at the Middle School for Years 9 and 10.

- Most differences in the social, organisational and educational provisions between middle and secondary schools were attributable to the size of the institution.
- Some pupils felt disadvantaged because they did not have areas of subject knowledge that others in the Year 11 classes had, and that some teachers assumed the pupils had covered particular topics in Year 10.

Parents who had children attend both the Middle School and secondary school favoured the environment offered by the Middle School and would repeat the experience were the choice offered. Many of the issues traditionally associated with transition to a larger institution were not apparent when pupils from the first Year 10 class moved into their secondary schools. While, during the pre-transfer stage, many pupils were wary of what might be expected in their new environments, after an initial settling phase, all readily adapted to their new schools. It might be suggested that, in part the ease of transition was a factor of many pupils having siblings at the schools, previous out-of-school friendships and because they were older, possessed the added maturity to cope.

CHAPTER 8

THREE CASE STUDIES

Introduction

In this chapter case studies of three pupils are presented. The purpose for using the case studies was to obtain in-depth pictures of three pupils' responses to their changing social and educational environments. It was expected that data from the interviews and observations might provide insights into how effectively the middle school attended to the social and educational needs of the three pupils during Years 9 and 10 and their first year at secondary school.

Selection

The researcher's choice of pupils for the case studies was made by an essentially random selection from the class list. However, the Year 9 class teacher suggested that two pupils should not be included, one because English was not her first language and another because he felt that the pupil would be unlikely to talk about herself and her perceptions. Initially, one boy and one girl were selected. When a pupil from another secondary school joined the class, it was decided to include him in order to make comparisons between the cultures of the Middle School and the secondary school he had previously attended.

The three case studies trace the pupils through the middle school and their first year at secondary school. Tentative conclusions are drawn from each case and from their common experiences.

The data collection largely involved interviews, observations and information from documents. Interviews included eight informal discussions with each pupil at regular intervals over three years. In addition, responses were sought from each case study subject, following emergent events at school, such as, being made a house captain or the introduction of the Technology curriculum. Information from interviews was supplemented by observations at both the Middle School and secondary schools and from Q-Sort and Picture Interpretation surveys. In addition, visits were undertaken to the pupils at home where discussions with their parents also took place.

Case Study 1: Matthew

Background

Matthew, of European descent, lived with his mother, her partner and younger sister. Matthew listed his out-of-school pastimes as reading, watching television, playing hockey and doing a paper run. He was tall for his age and affable. He described himself as:

I don't like to call myself funny, but my friends say I'm funny. I can, like if someone says something, I can take it as a joke. Like, I don't get offended very easily. I tried hard at things. I don't give up easily.

(Matthew) (I103CS11Y)

Matthew's mother was a teacher and thought that Matthew had enjoyed a successful primary schooling. At the intermediate school he attended (which was in a different suburb to the Middle School), he was part of a Differentiated Learning Unit, one of three classes for above average ability pupils. Matthew recalled his teachers at the intermediate school as being particularly supportive. However, during his time at this

school, Matthew began to have difficulty with his writing, in particular copying and note-taking. Referral to the Psychological Service resulted in him being diagnosed as having Rett's Disorder, a condition evidenced by the loss of previously acquired purposeful hand skills and coordination and associated with impaired receptive and expressive language skills.

In Year 9, Matthew initially attended a boys secondary school. In discussions with Matthew about his time there it appeared that, from the beginning, he suffered constant harassment from other boys, including bullying. He reported feeling depressed and stressed. The schoolwork also frustrated Matthew. As much of the school work entailed copying notes from the board or transparencies or from dictation, he found this difficult. When his mother contacted the form dean about this problem, it became apparent that while some teachers were aware of Matthew's difficulty with writing, they were unaware that it was attributable to a particular learning disorder, despite a psychologist's report having been sent to the school.

By the end of the first term, Matthew's mother was very concerned about her son's progress at the secondary school. In a second visit to the school in 1995, she ascertained that knowledge about Matthew's condition had still not been made known to the teachers. She arranged a meeting with those who taught Matthew to have the learning disorder explained and to suggest how they might more readily accommodate his condition. This had little effect. At the end of the second term she and Matthew met with a psychologist at the Middle School to review Matthew's schooling. The principal of the Middle School was prepared to enrol Michael at the school but Matthew's current preference was to stay at the high school, because he was wary of having to adjust to another school. However, as his experiences at the high school continued to worsen in

terms of being bullied and having difficulty with his writing, Matthew's mother suggested that Matthew go to the Middle School. He transferred there immediately and was enrolled in the Year 9 class.

Middle School

During his time at the Middle School, Matthew changed socially and academically. He found that he could relate easily to most of the Year 9 class at the Middle School and a sympathetic teacher encouraged his learning skills. Matthew commented on the different learning environment at the Middle School:

Since it's quite [a] smaller class there's more one to one interaction with the teacher and you get more time. Like in a high school, like you just go from one teacher for an hour, one teacher for an hour, and [at the Middle School] it's just like you just do your work with the same teacher and you can get more personal level and you can talk more one to one and just have more time since it's a smaller class.

(Matthew) (I103CS11Y)

His mother reported in October of that year that Matthew was beginning to return to his former confident self. His class teacher commented that Matthew was a keen reader but a reluctant writer. He had a good recall of facts and was keen on using a classroom computer for playing games but not word-processing. He was having difficulty in some areas of Mathematics such as Algebra and tessellations.

When he was interviewed towards the end of his Year 9 year, Matthew acknowledged that he was more at ease but saw himself as "gotten more serious."

While there had been a few instances of bullying, Matthew said that he was generally happy socially and that he was achieving well in his schoolwork. He had expected the schoolwork to be more challenging than it was, particularly in Mathematics, Science and Social Studies. English was proving more difficult. He thought the extra hour's daily Option class time was helpful to his English studies. His mother and her partner had moved to another house closer to the Middle School. Matthew enjoyed the house and being able to walk to school. When interviewed at the end of his Year 9, Matthew's mother commented:

He has had a wonderful year. I think academically, he's not a person who puts a lot of effort into everything but as far as being happy and being happy to go to school and he's really the kind of kid who learns things and stores them up... he has had a great year.

(Parent) (I55PSS1Y)

The Year 10 also continued well. The two boys who had occasionally bullied Matthew had left the school. Matthew was offered the chance to sit the national School Certificate examination in English and Mathematics, which he found "a serious challenge." Results showed he attained marks in the 40% region. The class teacher's final report for the year included the comment:

[Matthew's] confidence has grown throughout the year and I have been impressed by his courage and developing maturity. [Matthew] has shown a developing willingness to accept challenges and to respond positively to them. He has shown greater perseverance and tenacity and I congratulate him for this.

(Extract from Matthew's Middle School end-of-year report; Year 10)

In an interview with Matthew's mother at the end of Year 10, she was asked if enrolling Matthew in the Middle School had been a positive move or whether it had only delayed the eventual return to what had been an unhappy environment. The mother commented:

I think it has been positive. I worry in case it has cocooned him too much, although I think there are some pretty hard characters that attend [the Middle School] as well... He's learned a few coping strategies and things that you need to know when you go to school such as when to keep your mouth shut. I think the system at [the Middle School] is much better because there is a person who cares about them.

(Parent) (I171PSS2Y)

Secondary School

For Year 11, Matthew enrolled at a different, and coeducational, secondary school to the one he'd earlier attended. When interviewed, he considered that he had settled to the demands of his schoolwork. He was agreeable with the subject-organised timetable and found his teachers helpful. He was playing in a school hockey team and making friends. As Matthew stated:

At [the previous secondary school] I wasn't really getting along socially with many people and it just seemed to be a lot easier to go to [the current secondary school] where I've got lots of my friends.

(Matthew) (I134CS12Y)

During an interview with the researcher at the start of Year 11, he was critical of his preparation in Mathematics at the Middle School, claiming that in some areas, especially Algebra, he was inadequately prepared. As a consequence, while others in the Year 11 class regarded the initial work in Mathematics as revisionary, Matthew found it new. He commented:

I mean, since we started School C only about three-quarters of the way through the year... I didn't really, I mean there was a lot of stuff we didn't cover. Form Four [Year 10] Maths, I understood it pretty much. Form Five [Year 11], that's very hard but I need a lot of help with it.

(Matthew) (I103CS12Y)

However, he did not feel greatly disadvantaged by the lack of coverage in some areas of Mathematics. He also commented that he was achieving well in his other subjects; English, Geography, History and Science. His mother considered that he might not be applying himself as diligently as he could be. However, she was relieved that he had settled so well socially.

After the Year 11 mid-year exam results, Matthew's mother expressed concern with the 36 per cent mark in Mathematics. When she contacted the school she was told that it was regarded as a satisfactory result for that class. In a written response, she expressed a concern that "they were writing these kids off", that there was potential for anyone who achieved 36 per cent to get 50 per cent, and that Matthew's Mathematics book had not been marked all year. No reply was received from the school. A request for an interview at the school was ignored. After a further request, she attended an interview with the head of Mathematics. Matthew's Mathematics teacher was not

present. The mother commented that during the interview there were several innuendos that the Mathematics class was not expected to achieve as well as some others and that this was in some part due to it including pupils from the Middle School.

Matthew finished the school year with extra remedial assistance at school with writing, and home tutoring after school in English and History. Despite the concern that Matthew's mother had shown with the Mathematics class at school, both Matthew and his mother commented to the researcher that they did not consider Matthew's weaknesses in Mathematics to warrant assistance. He did not achieve a passing grade in any national School Certificate examination subjects in Year 11.

Summary

The data suggest that the smaller class community at the Middle School, combined with a growth in confidence and maturity and the eventual removal of one of the social stresses Matthew had experienced (i.e. bullying), allowed him to cope more confidently on his return to the secondary school environment.

His experiences though, have implications for issues such as the adequacy of liaison between the Middle School and secondary schools concerning end-on curriculum programmes and the adequacy of preparation in one school for the next. It also contrasts the accessibility of parents to teachers, particularly those teachers who teach the subject with which concern is expressed.

The data also raise the question of how a pupil who was seen to be so academically capable at intermediate school as to be placed in a class of high-achievers, three years later, did not achieve any passes in the national School Certificate

examination. This may have implications for the criteria for selection for particular classes, whether they be accelerate classes at an intermediate or lower ability classes at a high school. One has to question the reliability and validity of the data used to make these selections. These issues are discussed further in the Chapter 9

Case Study 2: William

Background

The Year 9 teacher at the Middle School described William as a friendly and outgoing lad who was a capable all-round achiever. His class reports reflected this. He was the youngest member of a European family that included three older brothers. All three were involved in sport and were members of both summer and winter sports teams. His parents were supportive of the school and proud of all their children's academic and sporting achievements.

Middle School

When William was interviewed at the start of his Year 9 year, he said that he had chosen to stay on at the Middle School for Year 9 because he knew the teacher, the school was close to home and he appreciated being part of the small school community. He said that he usually found the schoolwork interesting and consistently achieved good grades. The class teacher described William as fun-loving and creative with a keen sense of humour. He regarded William as a good all-rounder who was making consistent progress. For example, the class teacher's first end-of-year report comments for Year 9, on William's progress in Mathematics included:

[William is] a capable and diligent mathematician who can be very meticulous and thorough. He demonstrates an enquiring attitude at all times and takes the time to obtain accuracy and demonstrate working.

(Extract from William's mid-year report , Year 9)

That William was fully involved in classroom discussion events is also evident in other subject reports. For Social Studies, the teacher wrote about William's "highly valid and important contribution to debate on social issues" and in Science, to his "keen and questioning attitude."

The researcher's observations in the classroom tended to support this. William readily shared his ideas with others, questioned frequently and sometimes offered a commentary on an issue. Like many others in the Year 9 class, he was keenly aware of his progress and could comment in clear descriptive terms how he saw his achievements.

At the end of Year 10, the class teacher's summary in William's report included:

[William] has been a tremendous pupil to have in the classroom. I have been impressed throughout by the exemplary attitude he has set for his peers. He has been a cheerful and friendly student whose opinion has been well respected and whose lively sense of humour has been well appreciated by everybody. I thank him for his valuable contribution to this class.

(Extract from William's end-of-year report, Year 10)

At the end of Year 10, William sat the School Certificate Mathematics examination. He

reported that it was, in part, for the experience. He was pleased with the 54 percent pass and acknowledged that as Mathematics was clearly his teacher's favourite subject, he was also pleased for the teacher.

Secondary School

For Year 11, William attended a boys' secondary school. He easily adapted to the new environment, initially continuing friendships with others from the Middle School, including friends from Year 8, and others in his neighbourhood. He enjoyed a widening circle of friends.

But in the classroom, he recognised that he was less involved in class discussion. "You just get on with your work. It's a lot of copying off the board and doing the exercise and things like that." He also commented on the larger size of classes, having five subject periods each day and the impersonal nature of calling the teachers, "Sir" (All William's teachers were male). William commented:

The classes [at secondary school] are bigger, or most of them are. But because they change every day, like you've got five different classes every day, you don't know quite everybody. I mean familiar faces but not names. So it's different. I mean it's not quite as friendly as if you're with the same people every day.

(William) (I153CS22Y)

The more structured approach to learning at the secondary school was reflected in the way that William began to comment on his scholastic achievement. Progress was reported in marks (usually percentages) on the school report forms and comparisons

were made between marks in different tests and examinations within and between individual subjects. This was a new development from William's Middle School experience.

Both parents supported this quantitative approach to recording achievement. They compared William's marks with those gained by his older brothers for the same year and clearly endorsed programmes that emphasised "the basics." Nevertheless, they acknowledged that the reports from the high school were not as detailed as those from the Middle School and offered less information. They regarded the secondary school as difficult to approach and thought the teachers less enthusiastic. At one parent interview they felt uncertain that a subject teacher was talking about William (This was the second occasion in which the researcher encountered this comment from parents).

William's mother recalled how a teacher's attitude to William had changed when she informed him that William had already sat the School Certificate mathematics exam the previous year and that he was taking mathematics again that year in order to improve his mark. After this was revealed, she commented that William felt that the teacher's attitude to him had changed and that he received more frequent attention and "prompting" from the teacher.

Interview data from this time shows that William's attitude to schooling appeared to become increasingly functional. He saw the main purpose of study as getting better marks. He noticed how the teachers spent a significant part of their time in assisting the slower learners or in classroom management. There was less opportunity for questioning. He commented that he chose to ask questions that required brief answers:

You ask questions more than asking for help. In Maths you'd ask help for an equation, but in things like English you just ask a question and get on with your work.

(William) (I154CS22Y)

Towards the end of Year 11, William's mother commented that he appeared to have changed from his former ebullient and cheerful self. She thought he was quieter. She expressed concern to the researcher that he no longer took part in team sports- an important activity at that particular secondary school. He socialised with a few friends. He continued to comment on schoolwork progress in quantifiable terms. Observations of William in the classroom showed that he rarely questioned or commented unless asked to. He was usually a listener in discussions. William, himself, recognised that he had changed but dismissed it as part of growing older. His mother commented that she thought he was becoming more independent.

One explanation for the change of behaviour was offered to the researcher in a discussion with another member of the Transfer Group at the secondary school. Without solicitation, a friend of William suggested that a group of boys had "ganged up on him because he had too much lip." He was physically harrassed. The researcher was informed that particular social rules operated within groups at that particular secondary school and that it was 'safer' to conform to the group's ideals than to be outspoken. The friend said that William, "Just had too much to say." William commented that "there are a lot of people with attitude problems and it's just hard to be my old self at that school."

At the end of Year 11, William achieved passing grades in the national School Certificate examination. His marks [in percentages] were Mathematics, 64; Economics,

Summary

For William, adjustment associated with transition to secondary school included significant educational and social changes. Educationally, he was aware that learning involved considerable note taking and copying and answering questions from texts. Progress was recorded in marks and grades. Socially, William's ebullient nature was tempered by the responses from his peer group. In the classroom, what had formerly been regarded as frequent contributions to class were interpreted differently at secondary school. In the playground, William received physical aggression from other boys for what they saw as an excessive amount of comment.

William's mother's concern with the accuracy of a teacher's reporting was the second instance shared with the researcher during this study. This has implications for the accuracy of teachers' knowledge of their pupils in a setting where they may teach up to five classes of pupils each day.

William's perception of how secondary school teachers taught contrasted with his experiences at the Middle School. The secondary school teachers were seen to be mostly involved in class management, assisting slow learners or marking pupils' books, contrasted with the more supportive, interactive teacher role, characteristic of the Middle School.

Case Study 3: Tessa

Background

Tessa, of European descent, was an only daughter who lived with her parents, but rarely saw her father as his work took him away for long periods. Tessa and her mother enjoyed a close relationship.

The family had moved to the city early in the school year (they moved three more times in the three years of this study). During an initial interview, Tessa's mother explained their decision for Tessa to attend the Middle School on the basis of there being no reasonable alternative. She said that they "couldn't find a decent girls school" and described their experiences while waiting in the entrance foyers of two other secondary schools as "scaring her to death."

Middle School

Tessa had a confident, though self-effacing and cheerful personality. Observations at the Middle School indicated that she settled easily into the Year 9 class, made friends with the other three girls in the class and soon showed consistently high attainment in all areas. Tessa commented that she enjoyed the attention available from having one teacher for most subjects. She appreciated the range of options offered.

Her teacher described Tessa as "vibrant, intelligent and perceptive." He also thought her "highly responsible, shrewd and adaptable".

He commented to the researcher:

When she goes off to another school she'll cope with it brilliantly because she's so adaptable. She's very shrewd, very shrewd. She's a survivor; far more so than the others.

(Year 10 teacher) (I162TKJ2Y)

While there was occasional friction amongst the four girls in the Year 9 class, especially when a new enrolment in term three proved to be a flamboyant and very socially mature competitor for Tessa's best friend, Tessa continued to flourish socially and educationally. She was always of good humour. "I think this Technology issue must be an early morning thing with the teachers" and enjoyed vying for top place in the class; "I don't think I got less than ninety per cent for anything this term."

The end of Year 9 subject report comments confirmed this when the teacher wrote of Tessa's Social Studies as "thorough and meticulous", her attitude to Mathematics as "focussed and thorough" and her Science as having shown "a full and comprehensive understanding of all concepts." The end of Year 10 report included the comment:

[Tessa] has been a highly responsible student who gives of her best consistently. She excels in all subject areas and commits herself with interest and purpose to all tasks. She is a lucid thinker who expressed herself very capably in writing or in discussion. More often than not she has taken the initiative and set an important example for others to follow. She has managed this with discretion and without arrogance.

(Extract from Tessa's end-of-year report, Year 10)

Secondary School

For Year 11, Tessa chose to attend a girls' secondary school, largely because her Middle School friend had chosen to go there.

Settling into the larger school was not easy for her. The girl who had joined the Middle School class during the year, and who had competed for the attention of Tessa's friend, became (in Tessa's view) revengeful. In an interview at this time Tessa said:

She was really making my life difficult and it wasn't just at school; it was at home as well... you know, strange phone calls and all sorts of things like that.

(Tessa) (I174CS3Y3)

According to Tessa, fictitious misdemeanours were reported to the dean and school counsellor and, on two occasions, Tessa was asked for explanations. Her mother contacted the school and asked for the two girls not to have contact.

In an interview with both Tessa and her mother mid-way through Year 11, both agreed that Tessa had lost social confidence at school. Tessa regarded herself as not being as cheerful as previously. She explained that her values had been severely challenged by others in her social group. In the presence of her mother and the researcher, she admitted that she was considerably wiser as a result of some adventures with others in her age group. She reported the pressure from others to contribute to talk and experimentation with boys and drugs. Membership of some groups necessarily included this and declining to be part of it often resulted for her in alienation and being given labels appropriate to someone outside of the group. The marks and teacher comments in her half-year report indicated that her school work had declined. Scores in

the nineties in the Middle School years had declined to 50s and 60s. Much of this, the comparatively poor report with low marks and the loss of confidence, Tessa also attributed to social pressures at school. Tessa commented to the researcher:

Oh, there's pressures at our school, like, some people put pressure on their friends and the people they know, to act a certain way and the people buckle under the pressure. Like, if a Maori was seen with a white girl who's from another group ...they get hassled about it and that's what's really bad. The really bad thing about being in such a large school is that there's so much pressure for everybody to handle that they split into their own separate groups. They just sort of think, well, I'd better conform. Everybody's very conformist at [the secondary school].

(Tessa) (I174CS3Y3)

Tessa also recalled how a Korean girl who had been her friend at the Middle School, now moved with a group of Korean friends. As Tessa explained, "She doesn't want to hang around with a group I'm in because she sort of feels outcasted, because she's different."

Tessa also applied the conformity issue to the classroom, where, during Year 11 she described her schoolwork as taking "a majorly [sic] dive." Accessibility to the teachers was not as easy as she had previously enjoyed. She described the Art teacher as having "very low approachability" and the mathematics teacher's attempts to "sort of cater for the middle bunch" in a class ranging in ability as "just not working." She made unfavourable comparisons with her Middle School experience:

I found at [the Middle School] I was trying and everything and [at the secondary school] you just don't have the enthusiasm to do it. At [the Middle School] when you got somewhere, you actually got credit for it... but at [the secondary school] if you do well, they always pick up something that you do wrong. They're very negative.

(Tessa) (I174CS3Y3)

Tessa attributed many of her concerns to being associated with a large institution. She made frequent reference to the social, racial and educational challenges that she faced each day. She said that she was becoming more miserable at school and was keenly aware that her standard of schoolwork was declining. Nevertheless, she intended sitting more School Certificate subjects at the end of Year 11 and being part of a Sixth Form Certificate class the following year.

A further social challenge was to frustrate her goals. Soon after beginning at the secondary school, Tessa's close friend moved with her family to another town. Tessa kept in weekly contact with her and did not make a similarly close friend at the secondary school. Tessa's appreciation of a close friendship with one person had compensated for her not being part of any of the social cliques at the secondary school. Additionally, she saw friendships amongst others at the secondary school as being competitive- each trying to outdo the other in terms of their experiences with sex, drugs or alcohol. Half way through her Year 11, Tessa revealed to the researcher:

During the week the teachers can keep the cap on what the girls get up to, but in the weekends its all on - like living on the edge. You should hear the things they

say on Mondays.

(Tessa) (I166CS3Y3)

Tessa explained that a girl who had joined the Middle School class part way through the year was clearly part of this group. She had earlier attended this secondary school, where she had frequently absented herself from school during the day in order to enjoy the company of young men and alcohol in nearby flats. As a result she had been suspended from the high school and her mother had enrolled her in the Middle School. Now she had returned to the setting which had provided the former opportunities to misbehave.

When she allegedly fell pregnant, she turned to Tessa for counsel. Her appeals for support required that Tessa spend large amounts of time with her. Tessa's mother was aware that Tessa was compromising her study time by helping her friend but was reassured by Tessa that she was in control of her school commitments. Tessa later admitted to the researcher that this was not the case and that she was sure that her schoolwork suffered even more as a result of her time with the classmate. Tessa recalled the graphic outcomes that her friend claimed would happen should her parents discover the pregnancy. Eventually the news of the pregnancy was leaked to the others at school and the girl became the centre of attention.

Next, Tessa was informed that the pregnancy was fictitious. While the girl and her friends had enjoyed the drama and tension that the idea of a pregnancy had caused, it seemed to have an emotional effect on Tessa. Not only did she feel that her confidence and support had been abused, but she had also experienced emotional strain on the other girl's behalf. She said that she felt saddened and angered that her support for a friend

had been abused and that she had missed out on so much schoolwork. Her lower marks at the end-of-year exams reflected this. She did not pass any subjects in the School Certificate examinations.

During the final interview with Tessa in Year 11, she expressed a desire to move to another school for Year 12 - one which was smaller. The researcher wondered if she might be searching for another version of the Middle School culture. Tessa herself agreed when this was suggested to her (She subsequently enrolled in a small, private secondary school for Year 13).

Summary

Tessa's home room teacher at the Middle School forecasted that Tessa's academic ability and attitude to schoolwork would serve her well at high school. Tessa had adjustment problems during her transition to the high school.

At secondary school, peer group influences were significant insofar as they influenced the social groups to which pupils belonged. Tessa was influenced by her allegiance to friendships. She valued a particular friendship which influenced her choice of high school. Her support for another friend from the Middle School affected her school work and involved emotional challenges.

Summary of the Case Studies

The Middle School experience and later the transfer for Year 11 into a large high school affected each pupil in a different way. For Matthew the Middle School experience gave him the confidence to cope with a return to high school. For the ebullient William, high school was a socially sobering experience. For Tessa, conformity to a different culture had a negative effect on her studies and led to an unfortunate experience with a friend.

The findings from the three case studies offer supportive evidence to the information gained from interviews and the Q-Sorts and Picture Interpretation surveys. In their own way, each case study offers particular insights into the organisational, schoolwork and social demands associated with transition. Each of the three pupils enjoyed a supportive Middle School experience, (two had attended the Middle School after beginning at other secondary schools) but their Year 11 experiences at secondary schools offered each pupil unique challenges. The ways in which each coped with their new, Year 11 environments have implications for the learning and social cultures of secondary schools. These are discussed in Chapter 9.

CHAPTER 9

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

Introduction

This chapter includes a discussion of the findings from the research study. These are primarily linked to the research questions and also make reference to the literature and theories about middle schooling, change and transition. The chapter has change as its focus and is in four parts, each relating to a research question. These include the development of the Middle School, how the pupils coped with transition to secondary schools, parent's views, and the relevance of the Perspectives theory of change.

Development of the Middle School

The Significance of the Informal Culture

It was suggested in Chapter Three that one view of explaining a school's development was in terms of its culture, or the contextual framework from which people could interpret events (Corbett, Firestone & Rossman, 1987). The culture of a school was seen by some researchers as divisible into its more formal and informal parts (Measor & Woods, 1984a) or, what Corbett, Firestone & Rossman regarded as the "sacred" and "profane" (p. 37). For these researchers, the formal culture of the school was a prescriptive term and included its organisational features. The informal referred to the members' responses to these.

The findings in this study suggest that the formal culture of the Middle School, while offering constraints in terms of the physical setting, such as not having additional classrooms in the first year, appeared to have little impact on the school's development.

Evidence suggested that it was the informal responses to the prescribed organisation that most accounted for the changes that occurred. The formal culture determined such parameters as the timetable, teacher responsibility for subject teaching, the topics taught and what text resources were to be used. The informal culture, on the other hand, included the effects of pupil and teacher responses, the development of their attitude to schooling and their social environment. The findings suggested that the informal culture of the Middle School provided the most appropriate means for explaining changes within it. This was because the informal culture included the members' explanations for the changes and their reactions to the changes as the Middle School developed. It was, as Corbett et al. (1987) explained, an appropriate means for describing the developing "norms, beliefs and values" (p. 37) of the institution.

Curriculum Delivery for the Years 9 and 10 Classes

That curriculum delivery was of significant concern to the New Zealand Education Review Office (ERO) was evidenced in its 1994 publication, *Forms 1 to 4: Issues for students*. Of the four areas of concern that were identified, greatest attention was devoted to the curriculum for Years 7 to 10 pupils. The report identified themes including the adequacy of the coverage of the syllabus, addressing learning needs and curriculum organisation. While the report offered useful advice concerning curriculum delivery, in the light of this research study, its central significance was understated. In the ERO document, the significance of curriculum delivery was embodied in just one sentence within ten pages concerning curriculum; "Schools should address this [curriculum delivery] in curriculum and overall organisation" (New Zealand ERO, 1994, p. 18). The reference to "this" included learning goals, study skills, decision-making and relations with others (p. 18). The present study suggested that curriculum

delivery was not only pivotal to the aspects identified by the ERO document but was the basis on which the middle school movement in New Zealand might survive. In the Middle School setting, curriculum delivery encapsulated both the foreseen ideals for the institution and also the means of proving that it offered an educational alternative for Years 9 and 10 pupils. Additions to the established organisations in terms of additional staffing, buildings (in the second year) and resources, offered little change to teachers' perceptions of how the curriculum should be delivered.

Within the parameters of the timetable, each teacher delivered the curriculum in their own way. Each held different (and varying) perceptions of what was suited to the age group and stage of education. All participants, pupils, teachers and parents valued the way in which teacher-pupil relations developed or continued, the flexible use of time, the emergent opportunities for integration and the personal attention to pupils' learning.

How the curriculum was to be delivered was the focal justification for ongoing changes in the institution. This research suggests that the effectiveness of curriculum delivery is fundamental to the accountability of middle schooling and its future success.

The Role of Specialism and the Organisation of Time

This study suggested that, for Year 9 and 10 classes, an integrative approach to curriculum delivery involving the flexible use of time, was a preferred alternative to a more specialist, subject-centred approach. When the Middle School expanded its coverage to include Years 9 and 10, an area that had traditionally been undertaken by secondary schools, its development automatically came under scrutiny; especially from a secondary school to which it contributed.

As discussed in Chapter Two (Measor & Woods, 1984a; Nolan & McKinnon,

1991), the issues of specialism and generalism centred around the perceived compromises that needed to be made with either approach. For example, in general, the adoption of a specialised approach to curriculum delivery apparently necessitated a more rigid organisation and a diminishing knowledge of each pupil's progress (Power & Cotterell, 1981). This was because a specialist approach to curriculum delivery necessitated a timetable and a comparatively rigid time allocation. In the Middle School setting it also meant that one teacher would be responsible for processing three classes in a subject area, rather than teaching the subject as part of an integrated approach in one class. This study suggested that the specialist approach restricted the opportunity for the flexible use of time in situations where the teacher wished to continue with an emergent area of pupil interest. Because the specialist approach also involved teaching greater numbers of pupils across up to five periods a day, it also diminished the opportunity of the teachers' knowledge of the pupils. In these three ways, this study confirmed those characteristics of "exemplary middle school education", identified by Lake (1988, p. 5). The flexibility allowed by integrated units and the use of varying blocks of time that reflected particular teaching goals and the learners' interests, was evident in this study.

The Role of Specialism and Subject Knowledge

As explained in Chapter Six, the expansion of the Middle School to include Years 9 and 10 classes, was essentially an extension of the largely single teacher-based philosophy, with limited provision to accommodate more specialised subject knowledge in its programmes for the older pupils. During the establishment of the Middle School, this provided the setting for two avenues of debate. The first related to individual teachers' concerns about the applicability of specialism for Years 9 and 10. The second

opportunity for criticism focussed on the lack of specialist teachers and resource rooms and thereby the ability of the Middle School to adequately prepare pupils for secondary school. To this end, the results of this study challenged the views held by the three secondary school principals who were interviewed as part of the previous study at the Middle School (Strachan et al., 1995) and who saw “the availability of qualified teachers as a major difficulty” (p. 49). This study also challenged the prime assumption in the ERO document (1994) that “students benefit from attending schools which have knowledgeable, highly qualified and effective teachers” (p. 18). While the researcher acknowledged that these qualities were useful, this study confirmed that teacher knowledge of the learning and social needs of the early adolescent was perceived by the teachers at the Middle School, in particular, as well as the parents and pupils, as more valuable than subject knowledge. As well, the ability to deliver the curriculum in an integrated way was seen as significant. Neither of these attributes was acknowledged in the ERO document (1994).

Furthermore, this study confirms the findings of the Cotterell study (1986) into teachers’ perceptions of how pupils relate to teachers. Although the Cotterell study was in the context of transition, it clearly indicated that pupils preferred to relate to one home room teacher rather than several and the study frequently cited the problems that pupils had in relating to several subject-oriented teachers. Evidence from pupils and parents in this study, clearly favoured teachers’ knowledge of pupils’ abilities and progress and this was more evident in a generalist teacher situation. To this end, this study confirms the research that supported the advantages of positive pupil-teacher attitudes being associated with home room organisations (Clark & Clark, 1993; George & Shewey, 1994; NMSA, 2000).

Furthermore, this study suggests that the ERO publication (1994) was assumptive

in its link between “the employment of specialist teachers” and the provision of “a balanced curriculum” (p.18). This study showed that an attempt at a specialism approach received varying support by the teachers because they, and the pupils, acknowledged the greater benefits of integration. It was the attempts to adopt a usable compromise between generalism and specialism that was one source of tension in the development of the Middle School. While it might be argued that an Options programme was simply specialism on a smaller scale, the two varied in both organisation and purpose. The Options programme at the Middle School operated in smaller time units and was changed every two terms. There was an extensive range offered, largely because they were arranged according to pupils’ interests. The purpose of the Options programme was to offer pupils an exploration of an interest, rather than an in-depth study. This study suggested that at the Year 9 and 10 levels, the exploration of pupil interests through an options programme was a practical alternative to the specialist approach.

The Role of Specialism in an Integrated Programme

In Chapter Two it was reported that the widening of the curriculum in the UK as a result of the effects of the ‘eleven-plus’ examination (Barker Lunn, 1970; Curtis & Boulton, 1960; Galton, Hargreaves, Comber, Wall & Pell, 1999), or the move in the US away from the junior high school model as a replica of its senior counterpart (Baron, 1965; Clark & Clark, 1993; Selleck, 1972) were responses to the extension of a more integrated curriculum. The Middle School experience chose to offer a continuation of the integrated model, but it did not deny specialism. The timetable clearly indicated core subject teaching times. The Middle School programme differed from its secondary counterparts in that, within the core subjects teaching times, there was opportunity to

alter time frames and to make links across themes and with other subjects. To this end, it supported the findings of Lake (1988), who confirmed the value of giving pupils more time with one teacher, within a specialised programme. This study also gave support to the Californian State Department's (1988) recommendation that related subjects be linked and taught in a more integrative manner.

At the Middle School, the first Year 10 pupils managed 12 passes in School Certificate subjects (one year earlier than normal). This was the most obvious example of accountability to the wider school community. The integrated model, which was not devoid of specialism, offered quantifiable proof of its success.

The Availability of Resources in an Expanding Institution

This research suggested that the allocation of resources and access to them operated at two levels; the expected and the actual. From a formal, expected perspective in the Middle School, resource allocation was largely determined by the controlling organisations; in this case the Ministry of Education and the Board of Trustees. In a 'fiscally neutral' environment this might curtail significant expansion because, with such a regime, any expansion of pupil numbers must be accommodated within the existing resources. Existing organisations provided the parameters for distribution of resources and accessibility to them. However, the informal culture of the school allowed particular rules to develop. These resulted in informal negotiation amongst teachers for resources, time and space.

When, from a formal perspective, resources were seen by staff members to be unfairly distributed, the teachers responded informally. They continued to apply negotiation and equity in preference to adopting a formal stance. This reflected the kind of informal commitment to change in a school that was envisaged by Mergendoller

(1993) as being necessary if the change was to be worthwhile.

This study suggested that decision-making regarding access to resources operated more successfully at the informal level. Additionally, the allocation of resources in an expanding institution necessitated an ongoing review of the relevance and ability of existing organizations to cope in a new environment. In terms of the Perspectives change theory (discussed more fully, later) this study confirmed the premise that where change within an institution permeated the entire institution, change in one area necessarily affected others (House, 1971). House (1971) also suggested that, within the process of institutional change, should one organisational structure remain unchanged, it was unlikely to be able to continue to service in its previous manner. This study suggested that an ongoing monitoring of the resources that supported teachers and teaching was a necessary part of change in the Middle School.

Teachers' Role Perceptions

In this study, one factor that influenced how the curriculum was to be delivered related to how teachers perceived their role. The findings indicated that all initially adopted a stance along the generalist-specialist continuum. Individual teachers' perceptions of their role were influenced by formal constructs such as their responsibility for teaching a subject, the appropriate teaching style for Year 9 or 10 pupils, taking shared responsibility for planning their subject for others, adopting a timetable, designing formal exams and taking responsibility for an option group. Informally, other factors determined teaching behaviour; how they imagined their secondary counterparts managed classes, how they viewed the role of a specialist teacher in a large institution in comparison with one who was part generalist and what was a suitable timetable for the pupils in their classroom. In the developing Middle School, these roles changed

position along the continuum, most teachers eventually adopting greater responsibility for their class programme.

The findings support those researchers who identified changes in role perception as part of school development (Miles, 1981; Rossman, Corbett & Firestone, 1988). The literature suggested that in a more hierarchical organisation wherein change might be prescribed from the top as part of systemic change, members have a relatively static interpretation of their role (Holzman, 1993). In the Middle School situation where a largely autonomous role was promoted by the principal, change largely operated in response to the emergent needs of the organisation. This resulted in a varied perception of how each member should operate. This study suggested that the more flexibility was encouraged in a changing institution, the more varied were the perceptions of the teachers of their roles. Nevertheless, this study confirmed the suggestions made by House and McQuillan (1996) that members tolerate others' views only to the extent that they did not challenge the overall cultural integrity of the change.

Curriculum Development and Extension

In Chapter Two, the literature indicated that several researchers reported integrated programmes were preferable to specialist-operated classes, organised in small-blocks of time (Erb, 1986; George & Oldaker, 1986; Hansen & Hearn, 1971). Curriculum delivery was seen to be more effective when operated by team members (Oldaker, 1988) using large blocks of time (Hansen & Hearn, 1971; Lake, 1988) and when pupils had the opportunity to relate to one teacher, rather than several, subject teachers (Power & Cotterell, 1981). This study confirmed that curriculum delivery was seen by the Middle School teachers and pupils to be more effective in a home room setting.

Attempts at a specialist approach were seen as less effective by teachers and pupils. However, with reference to curriculum delivery, this study differed from overseas research in two areas.

First, research into curriculum delivery was usually on a large scale. Erb's (1986) study included 200 teachers. Power and Cotterell's (1981) study included 778 pupils. George and Oldaker's (1988) study dealt with 130 schools. A recommendation, common to these studies was that of restructuring large institutions into smaller components. Large schools would comprise smaller schools. Within these there could be smaller units, sometimes called "houses" (California State Department, 1988). Further divisions would include interdisciplinary teaching units. In this way, curriculum delivery was seen by some researchers as best achieved by designing programmes for implementation on a smaller scale and using shared specialist facilities (California State Department, 1988). By contrast, in this study the organisation for curriculum delivery began on a small scale. The 'houses' envisaged by the Californian State Department (1988) for effective curriculum delivery were already operating in the Middle School in Years 7 and 8. These were readily extended into Years 9 and 10. This study extended the knowledge of curriculum programmes by illustrating an extension of existing, small organisation units, rather than the imposition of a new structure.

A second difference was that, in this study, the extension of a Year 7 and 8 subject curriculum into a Year 7 to 10 model and the translation of this into programmes operated in two stages; the linear and the integrative. While 'stages' or 'processes' of development are widely recognised in the literature (Clark & Astuto, 1984; Wayson, de Voss, Kaeser, Lasby & Pinnell, 1982; Weindling, 1989), this study suggested that, in terms of curriculum development, only when each subject had been divided into themes and content to cover a total programme (in this case, a four year one), could integration

across themes be developed.

While this enabled more formal, planned integration, in reality much integration was unplanned and emergent as part of a programme. The pupils responded negatively to forced integration, particularly where limited content was visited from different subject perspectives and where there was insufficient information to sustain a series of lessons. Useful integration was an appreciated part of the programme. The significance of this finding to education was that programmes were more likely to be effective and sustain pupil learning where, within a lineal, integrative programme, there were opportunities for emergent interests to be followed.

The study suggests that lineal development of subject curriculum should precede integration and that informal integration can be effective in meeting pupils' learning needs.

Ownership of Change

Some literature suggested that planned change in a school was best effected by the members (teachers) having a shared definition and ownership of the change (Prebble & Stewart, 1984). As change developed, some members might not share in the agreed culture of the school (Anderson, 1993) and adopt views that differed from the common aim (Rossman, Corbett & Firestone, 1988). In this way, as an institution enlarged and changed, the ownership of the philosophy may become more disparate. As more compromises had to be made or as good will in support of the venture was sought, some participants preferred different rewards from those traditionally offered. These might include financial payment, instead of a title or position of responsibility that might not attract a commensurate fiscal reward. For example, at the Middle School,

encouragement to participate in the Option programme enabled teachers to offer skills and abilities that might not have otherwise been called upon. Some upskilled themselves in order to be involved in the programme. Some who initially considered the task of teaching older pupils as too challenging, became confident and eventually involved. In terms of the Perspectives theory (House, 1971), from a political perspective, those involved in organising the change might benefit from an awareness that members might adopt new and unforeseen roles in an expanding organisation.

This study suggests that members involved in a changing institution may adopt new roles, yet retain their ownership of the change because the change has empowered them to attempt new roles and has provided support for them to do so. Also, their reasons for doing so may not be those originally envisaged by those effecting the change.

Rethinking Organisation Patterns

Some researchers have suggested, that in larger institutions, change is preceded by structural reorganisation (Weindling, 1989) and mobilisation (Miles, 1981) and that without stages like these, change can become little more than the “tinkering and quick fixes” envisaged by Hargreaves (1994b, p. 44). An example, might include the implementation of a new curriculum which required a review of the existing organisation. In the comparatively small school community of the Middle School, certain organisational features developed that were not usually associated with large institutions. An example of this was the development of a policy of matching programmes to pupils, rather than pupils to established programmes. At the Middle School, the translation of a few whole staffing units into part-time components allowed the provision of specialist teachers in a flexible Options programme. While this may

also be a feature of large schools, in this instance, because of the many, small groups in the options organisation, teachers were able to be employed for restricted hours within short-term contracts. The pupils and parents appreciated the variety of choices offered and recognised this as an attempt by the school to cater for the pupils' interests.

In this way, the study reflected the opinions of those researchers who suggested that effective programmes for middle schools should focus on those practices that support the social and academic needs of their clients, rather than foster change practices that focus on structure and class spans (Epstein & Mac Iver, 1990; Lounsbury & Clark, 1990; Mac Iver & Epstein, 1993). This study suggested that a small, flexible organisation was well equipped to fit programmes to pupils' needs, rather than sort pupils into predetermined programmes.

Identity and Accountability

From its inception, it was expected by the principal and the deputy principal, that the Middle School would have an identity of its own; that it would fulfill an unique place in the educational provisions of the area. In part, this belief was based on the premise that it would continue the sort of educational structure that pupils experience in primary school education and in Years 7 and 8 at the Middle School, that is, an organisation which was largely based on home-room teaching. But implicit in this ideal was an awareness that the school's aims spanned an educational dichotomy– to provide a generalist-type education yet offer an adequate basis for entry into a more specialist, subject-oriented secondary school learning environment. Whether the Middle School could provide this was debatable. Initially, it was vulnerable to criticism from those who took a stance in support at either end of the generalist-specialist continuum. Its establishment encouraged debate concerning comparative academic standards, the

ability of pupils to achieve in a secondary school environment and the nature of the clientele that might be attracted to a middle school.

This research identified four factors that supported the ideology and actuality of middle schooling; attainment in the national School Certificate examination at the Year 10 level, perceived success at secondary school, the supportive and positive attitudes of the pupil participants towards their Middle School experiences, and the favourable support of those parents involved. In all four areas, the success in terms of societal expectations was evident. For those who chose to stay at the Middle School for Years 10 and 11, the present study suggested that the school would provide them with a suitable preparation for secondary schooling. In part, this contradicted the evidence of Hargreaves (1986). But this may be attributable to the relative scale or size of a school and the clientele within. Coping with the “situational vulnerability” suggested by Hargreaves (1986, p. 66) and Becker (1964) may be more attributable to large schools and while it may be associated with a teaching staff who were grappling with a changing organisation, it was unlikely to prevent a smaller school realising its intentions.

Implications for the Preferred Size of a School

Many of the advantages of a small school community that were described in the literature were also features of the Middle School. These features included smaller classes with home-room teachers who could provide a caring environment and integrated teaching programmes (Clarke & Clarke, 1993; Mac Iver & Epstein, 1991) and the ‘collegial’ ethos suggested by Webb and Vulliamy (1996). The small community in this study was also one which was extending its parameters with significant social and educational results. Social factors included the development of

relatively cohesive classroom communities in which tolerance and support were obvious features. The addition of older pupils in the school community gave opportunity for types of leadership that might not have been possible in a Year 9 or 10 class at a secondary school. Many of the teachers and pupils had known each other for three or four years. This had obvious advantages for teacher approachability and support for the pupils.

Teachers and pupils appreciated the large blocks of time in which an integrated approach was evident. This confirms the research studies on the use of large blocks of time which were seen to enhance pupils' sense of belonging and also allowed for closer teacher-pupil relations (Connor & Lake, 1988; Erb, 1986).

This research also supported the findings of the benefits of small school communities (Barker & Gump, 1964; George & Shewey, 1994). It suggested that parents and pupils appreciated the advantages that a small-scale learning and social environment offered. It is suggested that schools with rolls not greater than 400 pupils, allow the development of a community atmosphere and teacher knowledge of pupils that was evident in this study.

Transition to Secondary School

An Alternative Track

The literature on transition into larger school organisations generally acknowledged that for some pupils, change to a larger institution can be challenging and can have long-lasting behavioural effects (Cotterell, 1986; Lazarus & Launier, 1978). Some studies focused on the adaptability of pupils to change in terms of their personality type of the size of school from which they transferred. This research study focussed on the effects of delaying transition to secondary school. It acknowledged that some pupils chose to

delay their transition because it was seen as too challenging in comparison to continuing in the relative security of their present environment (as envisaged by Connor & Lake, 1988). It also acknowledged that some pupils chose not to transfer because of the associated costs of travel and uniforms. But the perceptions of the Transfer Group and their parents overwhelmingly supported the notion of delayed transition. It was acknowledged that this did not suggest that all middle schools should be extended to include Year 10. It did however confirm that for some pupils, especially those who foresaw difficulty in coping with secondary school at Year 9, the middle school option was a viable alternative. Furthermore, it was not seen by the participants as a trade-off between attending a large school where specialised teaching and substantial teaching resources were available and that of continuing with the familiar and a generalised approach. The Middle School offered social and educational advantages.

This research has added to the body of knowledge concerning the perceived advantages of smaller schools to cater for the special academic and social needs of the Year 7 to 10 age group. These were associated with extending the type of learning and social environment that the pupils had experienced in Years 7 and 8. They included features such as the teachers' knowledge of the pupils, the pupils' familiarity with their learning environments and the continuation of social friendships. But, in general, delaying transition was seen as a positive choice and allowed more time for preparation for transition at Year 11.

Stages in the Transition Process

Details of a large study on school transition included the suggestion that three stages or phases were evident (Cotterell, 1982). These included, first, an anticipatory or coping phase, followed by a phase including the first month or two where pupils adjusted to

their new secondary school and finally, a consolidation phase where pupils came to identify with the school as members, rather than newcomers

This study confirmed evidence of the first (anticipatory) and third (consolidatory) phases in transition. However, the consolidation phase was not of one or two months duration. It was remarkably short and recognised by the Transfer Group as extending for a few days, which was as long as it took to become familiar with times and places. Admittedly, social adjustment, in the consolidatory phase, took longer. While the Q-Sort and Picture Interpretation surveys indicated a general concern by the Transfer group with social relations, the case studies indicated that, on an individual scale, social adjustment might include real challenges. The extent to which the social adjustment was part of the transition process or part of the ongoing social adjustment that is characteristic of adolescence in a secondary school environment, was not apparent. However, social adjustment to a new setting was certainly a significant part of the transition process. The role of peer grouping as a prominent organising principle of social adjustment, as detailed by Hargreaves (1967), Meyenn (1980) and Santrock (1996) was evident from case study data in this study. Certain modifying effects were acknowledged. For example, this study also confirmed the findings by Epstein (1983) that transition was eased by having older siblings already at the school or by knowing friends from out-of-school social and sporting groups.

Curriculum Continuity

This study identified areas where a break in the continuity of curriculum was a cause for anxiety for some pupils. While it was acknowledged that the use of different examples to illustrate or support a curriculum theme required pupils to make new links in their transfer of learning, the non-coverage of core material or the assumption by a secondary

teacher that certain material had been covered, was seen as disadvantaging some pupils in the Transfer Group. This had clear implications for liaison between contributing schools and their secondary counterparts. As a result of this study, it was suggested that formal liaison concerning curriculum continuity be established between Year 10 middle school teachers and Year 11 teachers at the secondary schools to which the Middle School contributed. The focus of such discussions might include agreement on the themes and content for each subject area.

While familiarisation with a secondary school at the pre-transition stage along the lines recommended by studies such as McGee (1987) and Power and Cotterell (1981) may be supplemented by the knowledge gained from older siblings and sporting contacts, these tended to focus on the organisational and administration aspects. What McGee viewed as useful “linkages” (p. 22) between intermediate and secondary schools included liaison visits by relevant secondary school deans to the contributing schools, pre-transition visits by the pupils to secondary schools and the establishment of peer-support programmes. This study suggested that there was also a need for liaison concerning curriculum content. Not only would this prevent pupils feeling disenfranchised in comparison with others who have been part of the Year 9 and 10 at secondary school, but it would give valued continuity to the Year 7 to 11 continuum in preparation for national examinations and other qualifications.

Changes in Pupils’ Perceptions of their School Progress

Prior to their move to secondary schools, the Transfer Group expressed their school attainment in largely descriptive terms. As Wasserstein (1995) noted, grades were expressed as afterthoughts. After transition to the secondary school, progress tended to be expressed in marks or rankings.

This study suggested that both perceptions were factors of their learning environments. Classroom environments for Years 9 and 10 were characterised by comparatively closer teacher-pupil relationships, a more detailed teacher knowledge of the pupil and probably a more relaxed and humourful environment; not unlike that observed in the Power and Cotterell (1981) study of middle schools in Brisbane or George and Oldaker's study in the US (1981).

This study suggested that, by the very nature of the organisational environment in which they operated, middle school and secondary school teachers adopted different perceptions of their roles. This was also reflected in the perceptions of the Transfer Group who saw the learning environment of secondary schools as being distant and subject-orientated; a not unexpected outcome of large schools. This study challenged the claims made by secondary schools concerning the advantages of pupils entering a five or six year subject continuum. It called to question whether a teacher's knowledge of the learning and social habits of their pupils were more significant to their learning than a teacher's knowledge of subject content. This study suggested that this might be so.

Parents' Views of the Differences Between the Learning and Social Environments of Two Kinds of Schools

In this study, a group of parents was uniquely positioned to be able to comment on the comparisons between the Middle School and secondary schools. As explained in Chapter Six, all parents in the sample had a child who had stayed at the Middle School for Years 9 and 10 and a child who had begun secondary schooling at Year 9. Their comments suggested that they held clear and supportive views that favoured the Middle School experience for Years 9 and 10. In this study, the comments from this group of

parents were significant for four reasons:

First, they largely confirmed the opinions held by the pupils and parents generally concerning the advantages of the Middle School. As stated in the previous case study report on the effects of establishing a middle school (Strachan et al., 1995), in the absence of a local secondary school, the Middle School offered an alternative form of education for Years 9 and 10. For these pupils, the social and educational climate of the Middle School was an extension of that which they had experienced during their first two years at the school. In this way the pupils at the Middle School avoided the kinds of major environmental changes described by Cotterell (1992) as hindering adjustment and education progress.

Second, the parents confirmed that the original ideals of the Middle School had been largely realised. For example, the Middle School had offered the pupils adequate subject knowledge to cope with the secondary curriculum. The curriculum was taught by teachers who were already familiar with the pupils and with working from the Years 7 to 10 syllabuses. The holistic teaching approaches, that operated within a flexible use of time, had proved effective and these were commensurate with an ideal that valued teachers' knowledge of their pupils. In this way, this study also confirmed the priority of those practices that support the social and educational practices of early adolescents, as envisaged by researchers including Epstein and Mac Iver (1990) and Lounsbury and Clark (1990).

Third, parents indicated areas in which some large secondary schools, by the very nature of their size and complexity, may make compromises in their educational provisions, as described by Mac Iver and Epstein (1991) and Power and Cotterell (1981). In this study this was particularly evident from parents' comments in terms of parent access to the school and to the teachers themselves, and teacher knowledge of the

pupils.

Finally, the parents largely confirmed opinions held by pupils who transferred into the Middle School from secondary schools. They agreed with their children that the delay in transferring to secondary school had been worthwhile. They acknowledged that the added maturity afforded by the delay assisted in coping with Year 11 in a large school. In this way, the study confirmed that certain personality factors associated with transition, as described by Nisbet and Entwistle (1969) might assist adjustment. In making comparisons between their children who had entered secondary school at Year 9 and those who were part of the Middle School experience for that year, the parents clearly favoured the Middle School approach.

Moderating Factors

There are moderating factors to be taken into account when discussing the parents' obvious support for the Middle School.

First, it can be suggested that the Middle School clientele was more suited to that environment. It was acknowledged by the Middle School principal, the teacher of the Transfer Group and some other teachers at the Middle School that the Middle School was attracting pupils for whom coping with settling in a large secondary school would be a significant challenge. It was also acknowledged that, particularly in the second year, many of the pupils who stayed on at the Middle School were those who made slower academic progress. It was accepted by the principal and the deputy principal that their schooling demands would be more adequately accommodated in the familiar and smaller-scale environment of the Middle School.

It was to be expected that parents were likely to find communication with a smaller organisation easier than a larger one, particularly when the smaller one was both

more familiar and there were fewer people to deal with. In a larger institution, apart from the teachers, several people have significant managerial responsibilities; the principal, deans, careers adviser, counsellors and heads of departments. In the Middle School, the principal was the only person without a class. As part of the principal's "open door" policy, parents could approach teachers directly.

It might also be acknowledged that for those who stayed at the Middle School for Years 9 and 10, there was little challenge or adjustment to be made. These pupils experienced a continuation of a school social and educational climate that was essentially an extension of what they'd been used to in Years 7 and 8

A Revision of the Perspectives Theory of Change, as a Result of this Study

This section offers a consideration of whether the Perspectives theory of change provided an adequate foundation for the understanding of change in a developing school.

The principles of the Perspectives theory as described by House (1971, 1979, 1981) and House and McQuillan (1996) and which have been detailed in Chapter Four, were based on three perspectives, or research lenses; the technical, the political and the cultural. These can be used to observe and understand organisations in change. Proponents of the Perspectives theory also suggested that the three perspectives were necessary, but not complete, to the analysis of an organisation in change and that school reforms which neglected these dimensions were likely to encounter significant problems. Each research perspective is analysed below in terms of this study.

The Technological Lens

As explained in Chapter Four, the technological perspective focused on how the change

was achieved. Its focus was on achievements and outcomes. The outcomes were not necessarily confined to a lineal model. The technological perspective also offered a process view of change that went beyond a lineal approach to change and viewed change in a wider perspective. In this way, change did not have to be sequential. Neither, in any change situation, needed it be assumed that the participants held similar goals or were held accountable to a common goal by some force. House (1971) suggested either of these conditions rarely occur.

The cultural implications of this comment are discussed later in this section, but, from a technological viewpoint this approach was useful because it did not assume mutual accountability by the members. In the case of the Middle School, the process of change was lineal only in terms of its time sequence. There was evidence of dissension between the Year 9 and 10 teachers concerning what outcomes should be aimed for and changes in organisation that involved reverting to an earlier plan. Although the notion of progression along a predetermined plan was sometimes evident (for example: the syndicate planning of units of study that adopted a fixed time-frame and which were to be assessed at their conclusion; the implementation of the Information Technology curriculum), many of the developments were emergent. Examples included experimenting with the positioning of the Options programme, the manner in which outside mobile teaching resources were to be used and attempting whole-syndicate sports activities meetings.

For House, (1971) the application of the technological perspective included features such as:

- What are the change differences?
- How well will it be practised?
- What routines are included?

- How will changes be communicated

It was a useful lens. However, in the light of this study, it had two myopic implications that warranted the lens being widened. These limitations were its introspective stance and its inability to envisage or accommodate regression.

The introspective claim related to the breadth of focus of a study. As explained above, the technological stance was a way of viewing change in terms of outcomes. The lens focused on the interpretation of change moves and how they might be accommodated within current routines. This included an awareness of how changes in one part of an organisation necessarily affect other parts of the organisation, including the wider community. The movement was generally outflowing. It did not, however, encompass the technological effects of forces outside the community on changes within the organisation. There was an implicit assumption that the forces for change, initiated from above or within the organisation, flowed down and through the organisation. This research study indicated that change from a technological perspective can originate from outside the organisation and that changes within the organisation can have a backlash effect on the organisation. For example, motivation for the establishment of the Middle School originated in the local community (Strachan, McGee, Oliver, Ramsay, Ward & Winstone, 1995) and, as such exemplified a largely political, but nevertheless partly technological (because it included how the process would operate), move for a change in school provisions in the area. In short, the community wanted a secondary school. Later, after the Middle School was established, the community requested that it be extended to include Year 11 pupils. This would have had technological implications for the school. For example, the perceived role of the school might change. Rather than being seen as an alternative transition route to secondary school, an enlarged middle school that accommodated Year 11, may change its function

(technological role) for some pupils, to one of preparation for the workforce. It was not the purpose of this study to analyse the effects of an extended middle school, but it could be surmised that a middle school that offered Year 11 education could attract a clientele who viewed its function as a type of finishing school. In this way, it might attract those who saw it as a means of preparation for the workplace; a situation not dissimilar to a kind of post-primary education option offered in New Zealand in the 1940s and discussed in Chapter Two.

A second criticism is concerned with whether the technological lens encompassed regression in change. This was based on the premise that the technological perspective implied an ongoing development towards improvement or betterment. The lens was a means of observing how the changes were progressing in terms of outcomes. Regressive moves may be acknowledged to be moving forward in terms of time but in terms of an improved organisation they may also involve a return to an original status.

An example of this regression in this study related to curriculum delivery. In the second year of operation the three classes in the Middle School changed from a single-cell approach where each teacher taught most subjects to one class, to a more specialised approach, where each teacher took responsibility for planning and teaching a cluster of subjects to all three classes. The change didn't work. The teachers reverted to the original system, which involved minimal specialisation. Therefore the findings of this study suggest that while the technological focused on the process of development, it did not acknowledge that the process might include regression. It suggests that the technological lens be widened to accommodate differing flows of forces for change.

The Political Perspective

The political perspective viewed change in terms of the negotiations involved (House, 1971). In this research study, the political perspective offered a useful means of interpreting the political forces associated with changes. These included both those within and outside the school. The political forces operating within the school included those teachers who were part of the new Year 9 and 10 classes and who were positioning themselves within an expanding organisation. Their establishment involved negotiation for space, for resources and acknowledgement of the challenges associated with developing their class programmes. Other political allegiances may include the whole school staff and move across interest groups, resource responsibilities, subject teaching responsibilities and varying degrees of support for the middle school notion. For House and McQuillan (1996), descriptors such as ‘allegiances’, ‘positioning’ and ‘negotiation’ were indicators of the political lens for viewing change. Their explanation of the political perspective is one characterised by potential for conflict and divisiveness. House (1981) recognised this when he stated that groups would “often conflict” with others (p. 23). The research questions offered by House and McQuillan (1996, p. 34) that focussed on the political perspective, and which are listed in Chapter Four, indicate a concern for the identification of factions that support and oppose change.

This study suggests that, although the political lens allowed the observer to view the response of those challenged or affected by change, the role of equity could be included in this perspective. For example, the political perspective might be extended from an interpretation of those factions affected by change to include an assessment of the equity of the effects of change on different groups. Within an institutional change, some groups may be more affected by the change than others. As a result they may have

to make a more significant move than others. An example from this study, included a teacher who felt that, in offering a class in the Options programme, she had made a significantly greater contribution than other teachers and that her additional efforts were not adequately compensated financially. While teachers in this situation and other members involved in change, might acknowledge that they had adequate representation in the political discussions of what changes were envisaged when they were first proposed, after the event, the extent to which each individual or group was affected warranted review. It was not only a case of who was involved but the extent to which they were affected by change. Another example from the Middle School included the situation where initial alterations to accommodate extra classes had to be made in a 'fiscally neutral' environment. Some teachers were more affected than others by the changes because they had to make compromises in their access to resources or change classrooms. The political perspective suggested that an analysis of who was affected by change was a necessary feature of the perspectives theory. This study suggests that it be extended to include the coverage of the change and who was most affected (and possibly disadvantaged) by it.

The Cultural Perspective

The cultural perspective provided a lens for viewing how change affected the acknowledged values of the organisation. It was closely allied to the political perspective because political factions that operated in an organisation tended to challenge, affect and become part of the cultural fabric.

In this study, change was initially evidenced by mostly political means, but as agreements emerged and consolidated as to how the original beliefs of the school were to be established, the culture of the Middle School changed. Certain agreed values

became associated with the change, particularly those associated with compromise and flexibility. This was evident in the arrangements for the use of various physical resources in an expanding school population, for example the use of computers, the gymnasium and the library. The cultural perspective allowed a view of the values adopted in the change process. In this case it included values of an awareness that because no additional physical resources were available in the first two years of the Middle School's establishment, resources had to be shared; that the establishment of an options programme for Years 9 and 10 classes would involve teachers beyond those classes and that some individual frustrations that previously might have prompted complaint, could be excused as the development progressed. House (1971) referred to this as a conformity to the overriding cultural values of the community. In terms of the Perspectives theory, in this study the cultural lens accommodated a view of changing ideals, adaptations to changing values, motivation for change and relationships within and between cultures. In the Middle School, these also included, for example, the attitudes teachers held as a group about the notion of middle schooling, that parent accessibility to the school was valued and that all staff members had an equable input into how additional funds could be spent.

But, in terms of the cultural lens, in House's description there was an implicit assumption that change related to cultures within the school and that these changes might affect values held outside the school. For example, one of the related research questions suggested by House (1971) focussed on how change in the culture of a school affected the culture outside the school. It was acknowledged that change might be initiated from outside a school from a technological or political perspective. Indeed House (1971) wrote of change models which are "passed down" (p. 35). Selnik (1966) referred to the political power of local and regional in initiating change and Atkin

(1968) wrote of the “outside programmatic accountability agency” (p. 36). It may be suggested that when House proposed the Perspectives theory, educational change was predominantly initiated by forces outside the school and largely bureaucratically controlled (Paulston, 1976). The community was not involved in schools as it is now, particularly in New Zealand. As explained in Chapter Three, the educational reforms associated with the New Right movement in New Zealand in the 1990s encouraged community participation and that schools should reflect the values and culture of their communities (Bates, 1987; Codd & Gordon, 1991; Dale, 1989; Thrupp, 1997). As a result, change within a school might be initiated from the community (Strachan et al., 1995). The Perspectives theory did not acknowledge that community values might be reflected in the change process or show awareness of the influence of cultural change that was evident in this study. For example, the initial request for extending the two-year intermediate school into a four-year middle school, came from the community (Strachan et al., 1995). Additionally, as the Middle School developed there was a feeling of an extended community in which the Year 10 pupils showed a maturity of leadership not normally evidenced by that age group in a secondary school. In turn, this affected parents’ perceptions of the role of the Middle School because, being aware of this, they sought to have the school extended to accommodate another year. This study demonstrated that emergent cultural values outside a school might influence change within a school, a process not envisaged by the description of the cultural lens in the Perspectives theory. This study suggests that the cultural lens be widened to include alternative initiators of change.

Summary

The Perspectives theory provided an interpretative framework for viewing change. A study of the emergence of the Hamilton Middle School confirmed this. The theory was founded in the broader Social Sciences but was refined as an approach to viewing change in educational settings. It did not offer a single, integrated conceptual model, but a series of lenses, or perspectives, by which change could be viewed and described. Its main proponent, Ernest House, claimed that an adequate understanding of school reform “necessarily involves all three perspectives” (1981, p. 1). In a personal note to the researcher (1996), House suggested that the factors are “necessary but not complete” (p. 1). As a result of an application of the theory to the Hamilton Middle School setting, it could be suggested that all were necessary but a certain broadening of the lenses to include those indicated, might well enhance the application of the theory.

CHAPTER TEN

CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

This chapter describes the contribution that this study has made to knowledge about middle schooling. To a large extent, the material summarises the explanations in the previous chapter. This chapter focusses on how the findings add to knowledge about middle schooling. It also suggests areas for further research.

Implications for curriculum delivery

This study emphasised that curriculum delivery is pivotal to the successful schooling of early adolescents. It suggested that the ability of teachers in middle schools to adequately deliver the curriculum is one of the bases on which middle schools will survive. In this connection, the research drew attention to the roles of specialism and integration in classroom programmes. Although the extent to which middle schools should emulate their secondary counterparts in terms of subject specialisation was an area of concern for Year 9 and 10 teachers in the Middle School, the study also drew attention to the significance of what might comprise a useful balance between specialism and generalist delivery of the curriculum. This had implications for the adequacy of preparation for secondary schooling. The research indicated that a compromise was developed, in which a home-room organisation included delivery of the core subjects for most of the time. Specialism was largely accommodated by the Options programme. In this connection, the findings confirmed the range of subject knowledge possessed by the staff of the Middle School and which enabled the comprehensive Options programme to be offered.

The study found detailed knowledge of the pupils (by their teachers) may even be valued above subject knowledge. This research suggested that the way in which the pupils described their academic progress reflected this. It identified a change from the use of descriptive terms to that of more comparative and ranking measures.

This report highlighted the need for adequate resources in a middle school and equitable accessibility to these for both pupils and staff. It indicated that access to resources operated at two levels; availability of specialist rooms and the provision and use of teaching materials. It noted that access to specialist rooms involved compromises being made in terms of the greater numbers of classes using them. In turn, this had implications for decision-making amongst the staff, particularly in terms of challenges to the traditional usage times by classes other than the Year 9 and 10 classes. It drew attention to the way in which decisions were made concerning the equity of access to resources and the possible privileges afforded to newly established classes.

The study identified a range of changes associated with expansion. These included the planning and implementation of a four-year curriculum, the development of a school-wide Options programme, additional subject knowledge, accreditation for offering School Certificate subjects and reorganisation of access to resources. Some changes required additional contributions from the teaching staff and for some this was an unpleasant and stressful experience

Implications for transition

The research added to the knowledge about transition in five ways. First it suggested that simple orientation procedures may significantly ease transition for pupils. For example, given timetable and map support, the adjustment phase within the secondary school was shorter than the literature suggested. Second, it suggested that those who

chose to delay transition to secondary schools considered the extra time in middle schooling to be worthwhile academically and socially. Third, the study suggested that, although transition was generally perceived by members to be readily accommodated, individual case studies found pupils had experienced personally stressful situations associated with transition. This information was only gained through the use of the case study techniques and the detailed information this technique elicited. Fourth, it identified the need for greater liaison between middle schools and the secondary schools to which they contribute. Examples were noted of pupils from Year 10 in the Middle School having severe difficulty in terms of curriculum content when entering secondary school in Year 11.

Finally, the study noted the effects the size of a school had on accessibility to the school. This study confirmed that parents at the Middle School valued easy access to the principal and staff. In the parents' views, access to teachers in the larger secondary schools was less easily gained and less satisfactory,

Implications for a theory of observing change

This study has significant implications for the use of the Perspectives theory. While it offered a useful means of observing and describing change, this study suggested that the lenses be widened to encompass additional facets of change. It recommended that the technological lens encompass different forces for change, such as the breadth of focus of a study and an accommodation of regression during the change process. It suggested that the political lens be extended to include the differing effects of change on groups within an organisation and that the cultural lens accommodate changes that are initiated from outside the organisation.

Implications for research methodology

In order to accommodate a longitudinal view of a developing institution, an intensive schedule of interviews and observations was employed. These provided an insight into the emergent successes and tensions of those closely involved in the development of the Middle School. Because the interviews and observations included pupils, teachers and parents they offered both a variety of viewpoints and also a means of triangulation. The study is also noteworthy insofar that it followed a group of students (in this case, the Transfer Group) across one of the major institutional divisions in the education system (into secondary schools). Useful data emerged, concerning how the pupils coped with transition and also their reflections on their experiences at the Middle School.

The research methods also included two supportive approaches; a projective method, Picture Interpretation, and a ranking procedure (Q-Sorts). In both cases the methods included a quantification of the qualitative data, which was an unusual method of analysing data when traditional methods rely on more descriptive analyses. The particular selection of illustrations for the Picture Interpretation survey added to knowledge about this approach. The use of a more polarised version of Q-Sorts data suggested a modification that was more applicable to a small-scale study.

Implications for further research

The issue of what comprises the most useful and fruitful curriculum diet for early adolescents warrants further investigation. This investigation has raised several questions. For example, at what age should curriculum specialisation begin? Is it beneficial for pupils to explore a range of interests (such as offered by an Options programme) before deciding on specialist subjects? These curriculum-related

questions have implications for school organisation. What place have integrated studies in middle schools? Is there a need for more part-time teachers to offer specialist teaching? What resources are desirable for effective teaching and learning at the Year 7 to 10 levels?

The theme of effective curriculum delivery includes the issue of the nature of subject integration. Given a premise that curriculum integration is a preferable method of delivery, is planned integration more effective than emergent integration? Put another way, is the teacher who is adept at using opportunities to link ideas from different curriculum areas as they emerge during their teaching, more effective than one who uses planned integration? While this was not a focus of this study, observations in classrooms during this research alerted the researcher to the possibility of this being a factor of teacher effectiveness. In turn, this may have implications for the selection of teachers for teaching at Years 9 and 10.

This study accepted the pupils who chose to stay at the Middle School after Year 8. Quite, given the option, who is attracted to stay at a middle school warrants further investigation. For example, if pupils who stayed at a middle school were those who found adjustment to secondary school difficult, and these same pupils also tended to be the lower academic achievers, then this would have significant implications for the kinds of learning programmes and social opportunities middle schools might offer. This could well have significant implications for the role of middle schooling in the future.

When describing scholastic progress, this study found that different methods were employed by different schools; one more descriptive in terms of progress, another more comparative. Although this was not a focus of the study, on the premise that description of academic attainment on a comparative or ranking basis may have

implications for pupils' concept of self as a learner, further research is warranted into which methods best facilitate pupils' knowledge of progress.

Although this study suggested that pupils valued being able to relate to one teacher, quite how, and whether this results in more effective learning, should be investigated. The interview data indicated that the close pupil-teacher relationships that had featured in the pupils' Year 7 and 8 schooling, may have influenced their decision to stay at the Middle School for a further two years. The data clearly indicated that the pupils valued this relationship. It also influenced factors such as the teacher-pupil interaction in the classroom, perception of scholastic progress and integration of subjects. But it also raises the significant issue of the relative importance of knowing where a learner is at and how this might be achieved in a more subject-oriented organisation.

Although the study offered insights into the effects of transition into secondary school, it also suggested that further study would be useful. Data from the case studies suggested that this applied particularly to how individual pupils coped with transition at a stage in their lives where they were also facing psychological and physical changes. This study suggested that the adequacy of support measures available to individual students be investigated. For example, there was little formal and systematic support in the secondary schools for the preadolescent pupils. As this is a time of immense social pressure for many young people, this report questions the form that any support should take.

There is also a need for investigation into the access of parents to teaching staff and the possible benefits of this for both teachers and parents. A related matter is school size. There is a need to examine the economic benefits of having smaller schools. Such an investigation might consider the effects in schools of not more than

400 pupils, and investigate a range of issues, including teacher knowledge of pupils and what happens to pupils who may be sidelined in a large organisation.

While Q-Sorts and Picture Interpretation offered useful supportive evidence in this study, it is unclear whether the pupils found them an easier way of describing their perceptions about transition. Further research is warranted into the usefulness of these methods with pupils who are not fluent verbally. Also, whether the selected illustrations used in the Picture Interpretation survey offered a neutral, yet realistic view of aspects of schools was never investigated. For example, was the picture of a locker room, typical of those found in schools?

It is always possible, at the conclusion of a study, to see in retrospect the potential efficacy of additional research methods and approaches. In the present study, teacher judgements about the future progress of pupils might have provided extra data.

Endpiece

The establishment of the Middle School offered an alternative route to secondary school for those pupils completing their Year 8. Undoubtedly, the possibility of staying on at the Middle School for an additional two years had the greatest appeal to those pupils and parents who wanted a continuity of the type of educational provision that the pupils had enjoyed for their Years 7 and 8.

Given that the Middle School offered many features to be found in a small school, and that its initial clientele had chosen to stay on, this study clearly established that, despite some difficulties, the delayed track was a viable alternative to secondary school. Pupils and parents who chose to delay the transition to secondary school for two years thought it an advantageous alternative because the pupils readily coped with

the later transition and, generally, were adequately prepared scholastically for Year 11 programmes. In support of this view, the study confirmed that the pupils' scholastic attainments in terms of passes in the national School Certificate examination, demonstrated that success was possible in a largely integrated, rather than specialist, programme.

Those involved in the development of the Middle School were, on reflection, supportive of what it achieved. With few reservations, the principal, teachers, parents and pupils considered that their involvement had been personally beneficial. But should we generalise from this positive outcome? Does what developed in this study provide a recipe for other schools considering recapitation? This study showed that flexibility was a key requirement; the responses by teacher, the principal and others involved in the Middle School to emergent issues were key factors. Transferability to another setting should be done with caution. As Ernest House (1992) stated, "Change is a journey, not a blueprint."

REFERENCES

- Adams, G. L., & Gullotta, T. P. (1983). *Adolescent life experiences*. Monterey, CA: Brooks-Cole.
- Adelman, C., Jenkins, D., & Kemmis, S. (1980). Rethinking Case Study: Notes from the Second Cambridge Conference. In H. Simons (Ed.), *Towards the science of the singular*. University of East Anglia: Center for Applied Research in Education.
- Alexander, W. M. (1965). The junior high school: A changing view. In G. Hass & K. Wiles (Eds.), *Readings in the curriculum*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon Inc.
- Alexander, W. M., & McEwin, C. K. (1988). *Preparing to teach at the middle level*. Columbus, OH: National Middle School Association.
- Alexander, W. M., & McEwin, C. K. (1989). *Schools in the middle: Status and progress*. Columbus, OH: National Middle School Association.
- Alexander, W. M., & Williams, E. L. (1965). Schools for the middle years. *Educational Leadership*, 23, 217-223.
- Alexander, W. M., Williams E. L., Compton M., Hines V. A. & Prescott D. (1968). *The emergent middle school*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Alexander, W. M., & Mc Ewin, C. K. (1989). *Schools in the middle: Progress report, 1968-1988*. Reston, Vancouver: National association of secondary School Principals.
- Allison, G. T. (1971). *Essence of decision: Explaining the Cuban missile crisis*. Boston: Little Brown.
- Anastasi, A. (1961). *Psychological testing*. New York: Macmillan.
- Anderson, B. L. (1993). The stages of systemic change. *Educational Leadership*, 51(1), 14-17.
- Apple, M. (1991). Ideology, equality and the new right. In L. Gordon & J. Codd (Eds.). *Education policy and the changing role of the state: Proceedings of the New Zealand Association for research in education seminar on educational policy*. Delta Studies in Education, No. 1, Massey University, July, 5-20.
- Arnold, J. (1982). Rhetoric and reform in the middle school. *Phi Delta Kappan*. 63, 453-456.
- Association for Supervision and Curricula Development. (1961). *The junior high school we need*. Alexandria, VA: Author.
- Association for the Study of Childhood. (1964). *The Currie Report: A critique*. "The 1963 Lectures." Wellington, New Zealand.

- Atkin, J. W. (1978). *Politics of curriculum innovation, development and implementation*. Paper presented at a seminar on Curriculum Implementation and its Relationship to Curriculum Development. Hebrew University, Jerusalem.
- Atwater, E. (1992). *Adolescence* (Third edition). New York:Prentice Hall.
- Australian Commonwealth Schools Association. (1996). *From alienation to engagement: Opportunities for reform in the middle years of schooling*, (Vol. 1). Canberra, ACT: Australian Curriculum Studies Association.
- Bailey, K. D. (1978). *Methods of social research*. London: Collier-MacMillan.
- Ball, S. J. (1980). Initial encounters in the classroom and the process of establishment. In P. Woods (Ed.). *Pupil strategies: Explorations in the sociology of the school*. London: Croom Helm.
- Ball, S. J. (1984). (Ed.). *Issues in education and training:1. Comprehensive Schooling: A reader*. London: Falmer Press.
- Barker, R. G., & Gump, P.V. (1964). *Big school, small school*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Barker Lunn, J. (1970). Streaming in the primary school. Slough, UK:NFER.
- Barley, C. A. (1995). *A guide to field research*. London: Sage.
- Baron, G. (1965). *Society, schools and progress in England*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Barratt, R. (1998). Middle schooling:A change for policy and curriculum. *Set,1*, 1- 4.
- Barth, R. P. (1986). *Social and cognitive treatment of children and adolescents*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Bassett, G. W., Kacka, B., & Logan, L. (1982). *The modern primary school in Australia*. Sydney:George Allen and Unwin.
- Bates, R. J. (1987). Corporate culture, schooling and education administration. *Educational Administration Quarterly* 23, (4), 79-115.
- Becker, H. J. (1964). Personal change in adult life. *Sociometry*, 66, July, 44-47.
- Becker, H. J. (1990) Curriculum and instruction in middle grade schools. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 71, 450- 457.
- Beeby, C. E. (1937). *The education of the adolescent in New Zealand*. Wellington: NZCER.
- Beeby C. E. (1938). *The intermediate schools of New Zealand; A survey*. Wellington, New Zealand:NZCER.

- Bell, J. (1987). *Doing your research project*. Milton Keynes, CA: Open University Press.
- Benn, C., & Chitty, C. (1996). *Thirty years on: Is comprehensive education alive and well or struggling to survive?* London: David Fulton.
- Bennett, N. (1984). *The quality of pupil learning Experiences*. London: Laurence Erlbaum Assoc.
- Berman, P.E. (1981). Toward an implementation paradigm. In R. Lehming & M. Kane (Eds.). *Improving schools: Using what we know*. Beverley Hills, CA: Sage.
- Berman, P. E., & McLaughlin, M. W. (1977). *Federal programs supporting educational change. Vol.VII: Factors affecting implementation and continuation*. Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation.
- Berman, P. E., & McLaughlin, M. W. (1978). *Federal programs supporting educational change. Vol. III: Implementing and sustaining innovations*. Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation.
- Berndt, T. J., Hawkins, J. A., & Hoyle, S. G. (1986). Changes in friendship during a school year: Effects on children's and adolescents' impressions of friendship and sharing with friends. *Child Development*, 57, 1284-1297.
- Best, J. W., & Kahn, J. V. (1993). *Research in education*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Binder, F. M. (1970). *Education in the history of western civilization: Selected readings*. London: Collier-Macmillan Ltd.
- Bliss, T., Monk, M., & Ogborn, J. (1983). *Qualitative data analysis for educational research*. London: Croon Helm.
- Block, J., (1961) *The Q-Sort Method in Personality Assessment and Psychiatric Research*. Springfield, IL: Charles Thomas.
- Blyth, D. A., & Traeger, C. M., (1983) The Self-Concept and Self-Esteem of Early Adolescents. *Theory Into Practice*, 22 (2), 91-97.
- Blyth, W. A. L. (1978). Role-set autonomy and middle school curricula. In C. Richards (Ed.), *New contexts for teaching, learning and curriculum*. London: Association for the Study of the Curriculum studies.
- Blyth, W. A. L., & Derricott, R. (1977). *The social significance of middle schools*. London: Batsford.
- Blyth, D. A., Simmons, R. G., & Bush, D. (1978). The transition into early adolescence: A longitudinal comparison of youth in two educational contexts. *Sociology of Education*, 51, 149-162.

- Board of Education. (1926). *Report of the consultative committee on the education of the adolescent*. (Hadow Report). London: His Majesty's Stationery Office.
- Board of Education. (1938). *Secondary education*. (Spens Report). London.
- Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (1982). *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods*. London: Allyn and Bacon Inc.
- Bogdan, R., & Taylor, S. (1975). *Introduction to qualitative research methods*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Bolman, I. G., & Deal, T. E. (1991). *Reframing organisations: Artistry, choice and leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Borg, W., & Gall, M. (1989). *Educational research: An introduction*. (Fifth ed.) New York: Longman.
- Bouma, G. D. (1993). *The research process*. Melbourne: Oxford University Press.
- Boxer, A. M., Tobin-Richards, M., & Petersen, A. C. (1983). Puberty: Physical change and its significance in early adolescence. *Theory into Practice*, 22, (2), 85- 90.
- Brewer, J., & Hunter, A. (1992). *Multimethod research: A synthesis of styles*. Newberry Park, CA: Sage.
- Brimm, R. P. (1963). *The junior high school*. Washington, D.C.: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc.
- Brooks, K., & Edwards, F. (1978). *The middle school in transition: A research report on the status of the middle school movement*. Lexington, Kentucky: Center for Professional Development, University of Kentucky.
- Brooks, R. (1991). *Contemporary debates in education: An historical perspective*. Harlow, UK: Longman Group.
- Brown, R. (1965). *Social psychology*. London: Free Press.
- Brown, J. M., & Armstrong, M.P. (1986). Transfer from primary to secondary: The child's perspective. In M.B. Youngman (Ed.), *Mid-schooling Transfer*. Windsor, UK: NFER-Nelson.
- Brown, A., & Dowling, P. (1998). *Doing research/reading research: A mode of interrogation for education*. London: Falmer Press.
- Bukowski, W. M. (1993). Popularity, friendship and emotional adjustment during early adolescence. *New Directions for Child Development*, 60, 23-37.
- Burgess, R. G. (1982). Some role problems in field research. In R. G. Burgess (Ed.), *Field research: A sourcebook and field manual*. London: Allen and Unwin.

- Burns, R. B. (2000). *Introduction to research methods*. (fourth edition). Frenchs Forest, NSW: Pearson Education.
- Burrows, J. (1978). *The middle school-High road or dead end?* London: The Woburn Press.
- Butchers, A. G. (1930). *Education in New Zealand*. Dunedin, New Zealand: Coulls Somerville Wilkie.
- Calhoun, D. J. (1983). *Organisation of the middle grades: A summary of research*. Arlington, VA: Educational Research service.
- California Department of Education. (1987). *Caught in the middle: Educational reform for young adolescents in California public schools*. Sacramento: Author.
- California Commission for Reform of Intermediate and Secondary Education. (1975). *Report of the California commission for reform of intermediate and secondary education*. Sacramento: California State Department of Education.
- California State Department. (1988). *Caught in the middle*. Florida, CA: California State Department.
- Campbell, A. E. (1941). *Educating New Zealand*. Wellington, New Zealand: Department of Internal affairs.
- Campbell, A. E. (1986). *The peer support program* (Third Edition) Manly, Australia: Peer Support Foundation Limited.
- Campbell, J. (1980). Small is beautiful: Some effects of school size on the behaviour of pupils. *Set 1*, Item 8. Wellington, New Zealand: NZCER.
- Campbell, J., & Robinson, M. (1983). Three Dozen's a crowd. *Set, 1*. Wellington, New Zealand: NZCER.
- Campbell, H., & Stanley, J. (1963) *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research*. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Carlson, R. O. (1965). *Change process in the public schools*. University of Oregon, Eugene: Center for the Advanced Study of Education Administration.
- Cavendish, S., Galton, M., Hargreaves, L., & Harlem, W. (1990). Observing Activities Part of series, *Assessing Science in the Primary Classroom*. M. Galton & W. Harlen, (Eds.). London: Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Chafe, W., & Danielewicz, J. (1987). Properties of spoken and written language. In R. Horowitz & S. Samuels (Eds.), *Comprehending oral and written language*. New York : Academic Press.
- Chin, R. (1967). Basic strategies and procedures in effecting change. In É. L. Morphet & C. O. Ryan (Eds.), *Planning and effecting needed changes in education*. New

- Clark, D. L., & Astuto, T. A. (1984). Effective schools and school improvement: A comparative analysis of two lines of enquiry. *Educational Administrative Quarterly*, 20 (3), 41-68.
- Clark, S. N., & Clark D. C. (1993). Middle level school reform: The rhetoric and the reality. *The Elementary School Journal*, 93, 447-460.
- Clute, M. J. (1966). Student activities for early adolescents. In G. Hass & K. Wiles (Eds.), *Readings in curriculum*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon Inc.
- Coalition of Essential Schools (CES). (1984). *Prospectus*. Providence: Brown University.
- Codd, J. A. (1988). The construction and deconstruction of educational policy. *Journal of Educational Policy*, 3, 3, 235- 247.
- Codd, J., Gordon, L., & Harker, R. (1990). Education and the role of the state. In H. Lauder & C. Wylie (Eds.), *Towards successful schooling*. Lewes, UK: Falmer Press.
- Codd, J., & Gordon, L. (1991). School charters; the contractualist state and education policy. In L. Gordon & J. Codd (Eds.). *Education policy and the changing role of the state*. Proceedings of the New Zealand Association for Research in Education seminar on educational policy. Delta Studies in Education, 1, Massey University, New Zealand, July, 21-32.
- Cohen, L., & Manion, L. (1996). *Research methods in education*. (Fourth Edition). London: Routledge.
- Coden, D. K., & Spillane, J. P. (1992). Policy and practice: The relations between governance and institution. *Review of research in education*. Washington, D.C.: American Educational Research Association.
- Coleman, J., Woldkind, S., & Ashley, L., (1977). Symptoms of behaviour disturbance and adjustment to school. *Journal of Psychology and Psychiatry* 18, 201-209.
- Connor, P.E. & Lake, L. K. (1988). *Managing organisational change*. New York: Praeger.
- Corbett, H. D., & Rossman, G. B. (1989). Three paths to implementing change: A research note. *Curriculum Enquiry*, 19 (2), Summer, 164-190.
- Corbett, H. D., Firestone, W. A., & Rossman, G. B. (1987). Resistance to planned change and the sacred in school cultures. *Education Administration Quarterly*, 23 (4), 36-59.
- Cormack, P. (1992) School-related barriers to success in reading and writing *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy*, 15 (3), 175-186.

- Cotterell, J. L. (1979). Expectations and realities: A study of transition from primary to secondary school. *Australian Journal of Education*, 23 (1), 21-31.
- Cotterell, J. L. (1982). Student experiences following entry into secondary school. *Education Research*, 24, 296-302.
- Cotterell, J. L. (1986). The adjustment of early adolescent youngsters to secondary school: Some Australian findings. In M. B. Youngman (Ed.), *Mid-schooling transfer: Problems and proposals* (pp. 66-86). London: NFER Nelson.
- Cotterell, J. L. (1992). School size as a factor in adolescents' adjustment to the transition to secondary school. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 12, 28-45.
- Cox, T. (1978). Children's adjustment to school over six years *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 19 (4), 363-372.
- Cronbach, L. J., & Gleaser, G. (1954). Book Review of William Stephenson's, The Study of behaviour: Q-technique and its methodology. *Psychometrika*, 19, 327-330.
- Crowther Report. (1957). 15 - 18 . London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office.
- Cuban, L. (1987). Cultures of teaching: A puzzle. *Educational Administration Quarterly*. 23 (4), 25-35.
- Culling, G. (1977). *Teaching in the middle school*. London: Pitman
- Cumming, I. & Cumming, A. (1978). *History of the state education in New Zealand*. Auckland, New Zealand: Leonard Fullerton.
- Curtis, S.J., & Boulton, M. E. A. (1960). *An introductory history of English education since 1800*. London: University Tutorial Press.
- Czikszentmihayli, M.L., & Larsen. R. (1984). *Being adolescent*. New York: Basic Books.
- Dabbs, J. M., (1982). *Varieties of qualitative research*. Beverly Hills: Sage.
- Dakin, J. C. (1973). *Education in New Zealand*. Auckland, New Zealand: Leonard Fullerton.
- Dale, R. (1989). *The state and education policy*. Milton Keynes: Open University Press.
- Davies, J. B. (1996). Health research: Need for a methodological revolution? *Health Education Research*, O.U.P. 112.
- Davison, B. (1996). Middle schools cater for the age of Information. *New Zealand Herald*, 28 November.

- Davison, B., & Thwaites, D. (1995). *Making the most of the middle years*. Wellington, New Zealand: New Zealand Principals Association.
- De Charms, R. (1976). *Enhancing motivation and change in the classroom*. New York: Irvington Publishers.
- Delena, M. (1992). Ways in which young writers are seen to be at risk. *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy*, 15 (3), 187-194.
- Denzin, N. K. (1970). *The research act: A theoretical introduction to sociological methods*. Chicago: Aldine.
- Denzin, N.K. (1978). *The research act: A theoretical introduction to sociological methods*. (Second Edition). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds.), (1994). *Handbook of qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Department of Education. (1962). *Report of the commission on education in New Zealand*. (Currie Report) Wellington, New Zealand: Government Printer.
- Department of Education. (1977). Report of the 1976 national survey of intermediate schools. (Milburn Report). Wellington, New Zealand: Department of Education.
- Department of Education. (1987). *The curriculum review: Report of the committee to review the curriculum for schools*. Wellington, New Zealand: Government Printer.
- Department of Education. (1988). *Administering for excellence: Effective administration in education*. (Picot Report). Wellington, New Zealand: Government Printer.
- Department of Education and Science (DES). (1965). *The organisation of secondary education (Circular 10/65)*. London: HMSO.
- Department of Educational Statistics. (1995). *Digest of educational statistics*. Washington, DC: National Center for Educational Studies.
- Dickinson, T. (Ed.). (1993). *Readings in middle school curriculum*. OH: National Middle School Association.
- Dienes, Z. P. (1964). *The power of maths; a study of the transition from the constructive to the analytical phase of maths thinking in children*. London: Hutchinson Educational.
- Dienes, Z. P. (1966). *Maths in the primary school*. Millburn, ME: MacMillan.
- Dobbert, M. L. (1982). *Ethnographic research: Theory and application for modern schools and societies*. New York: Praeger.

- Dovan, E. & Gold, M. (1966). Modal patterns in american adolescents. In L.W. Hoffman & M.L. Hoffman (Eds.). *Review of child development research*. Vol. 2. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Earley, P., & Weindling, D. (1987). *Secondary headship: The first years*. Windsor: NFER-Nelson.
- Eccles, J. S., Lord, S., & Midgley, C. (1991). What are we doing to early adolescents? The impact of educational contexts on early adolescents. *American Journal of Education*, 99, 521- 542.
- Eccles J. S., Midgley, C., Wigfield, A., Buchanan, C. M., Reuman, D., Flanagan, C., & Mac Iver, D. (1993). Development during adolescence: The impact of stage-environment fit on young adolescents' experiences in schools and in families. *American Psychologist*, 48, 2, 90-101
- Eccles J. S., Wigfield, A., Midgley, C., Reuman, D., Flanagan, C., Mac Iver, D., Feldlaufer, H. (1993). Negative effects of traditional middle schools on students' motivation. *The Elementary School Journal*, 93, 553- 574.
- Education Development Conference. (1974). *Improving learning and Teaching*. Report of the working party. (Lawrence Report). Wellington, New Zealand: Government Printer.
- Edwards, R. (1972). *The middle school experiment*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Eisner, E. W. (1982). Aesthetic education. In H. M. Mitzel, J. H. Best, & W. Rabowitz (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, Vol. 11, 87-94. New York, London: Macmillan.
- Ellyard, P. (1992). Thinking about the Future. *Education Alternatives*, November.
- Elmore, R. F. (1987). Reform and the culture of authority in schools. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 23 (4), 60-78.
- Entwistle, D. R., Alexander, K. L., Dallas, A. M., & Cardigan, D. (1987). The emergent academic self-image of first-graders. *Child Development*, 58, 1190-1206.
- Entwistle, N. & Ramsden, P. (1982). *Understanding student learning*. New York: Nichols Publishing Co.
- Epstein, J. L. (1983). Selecting friends in contrasting school environments. In J. L. Epstein & M. L. Karweit (Eds.), *Friends in school*. New York: Academic Press.
- Epstein, J. L. (1987). *Education of early adolescents*. Paper submitted to the State Task Force on middle learning years. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University.
- Epstein, J. L. & Karweit, N. (1983). *Friends in schools: Patterns of selection and influence in secondary schools*. New York: Academic Press.

- Epstein, J. L., & Mac Iver, D. J. (1990). *Education in the middle grades: Overview of national practices and trends*. Columbus, OH: National Middle School Association.
- Epstein, J. L., & Mac Iver, D. T. (1993). *Education in the middle grades: National practices and trends*. Columbus, OH: National Middle School Association.
- Erickson, F. (1987). Conceptions of school culture. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 23 (4), 11-24.
- Erly, P., Baker, L., Wendling, D. (1990). *Keeping the raft afloat: Secondary headship five years on*. Slough, UK: National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales. (NFER).
- Erb, T. O. (1986). *Middle school research: Selected studies*. Columbus, OH: National Middle School Association.
- Evans, K. (1985). *The development and structure of the English school system*. London: Hodder & Stoughton.
- Evans, R. (1993). The human face of reform. *Educational Leadership*, 51 (1), 19-23.
- Ewing, J. L. (1970). *Development of the primary school curriculum 1877- 1970*, Wellington, New Zealand: NZCER.
- Eyers, V. (1992). *The middle years of schooling: The education of young adolescents, years six to nine*. Victoria: Jolimont.
- Fenwick, J. J. (1992). *Managing middle grade reform- an "America 2000" agenda*. San Deigo: Fenwick and Associates.
- Fetterman, D. (1989). *Ethnography step by step*. California: Sage Publications.
- Fidler, B., Russell, S., & Simkins, T. (Eds.). (1997). *Choices for self-managing schools: Autonomy and accountability*. London: P. Chapman Publishing.
- Fielding, N. G., & Fielding, J. L. (1986). *Linking data*. Beverley Hills: Sage.
- Filby, N. N., Lee, G. V., & Lambert, V. (Eds.). (1990). *Middle grades reform: A casebook for school leaders*. San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development and the California Association of County Supervisors of Schools.
- Firestone, W. A. (1987). Meaning in method: The rhetoric of qualitative and quantitative research. *Educational Researcher*, 16 (7), 16-21.
- Firestone, W. A., & Corbett, H. O. (1988). Planned organisational change. In N. Boyen (Ed.), *Handbook of Research in Educational Administration: A project of the American Educational Research Association*. New York: Longman.

- Fischer, J. L., Sollie, D.L., & Morrow, K. B. (1986). Social network in male and female adolescents. *Journal of Adolescent Research*. 6 (1), 1-14.
- Fisher, S., Frazer, N., & Murray, K. (1984). The Transition from home to boarding school: A diary-style analysis of the problems and worries of boarding school pupils. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 4, 211-221.
- Flick, U. (1998). *An introduction to qualitative research*. London: Sage.
- Fontana, A., & Frey, J. H. (1994). Interviewing: The art of science. In N. K. Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Forbes, L. (1997). *The middle school. Study guide 3: Curriculum issues*. Teachers Qualifications Centre: Advanced Studies for Teachers. Christchurch, New Zealand: Christchurch College of Education.
- Fullan, M. G. (1985). Change processes and strategies at the local level. *Elementary School Journal*, 85 (3), 391-421.
- Fullan, M. G. (1991). *The new meaning of educational change*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Fullan, M. G., (1993). *Innovation, reform and restructuring strategies; Challenges and achievements in American education*. Washington: ASCD.
- Fullan, M. G., & Miles, M. B. (1992). Getting reform right: What works and what doesn't. *Phi Delta Kappan* 73 (10), 745 -752.
- Fullan, M. G., Miles, M. B., & Taylor, G. (1981). *Organizational development in schools: The state of the art*. Washington, DC: National Institute of Education.
- Galton, M., Hargreaves L., Comber, C., & Wall, D., with Pell, A. (1999). *Inside the primary classroom: 20 Years on*. London: Routledge.
- Galton, M., Simon B., & Croll P. (1980). *Inside the primary classroom*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Galton, M. G., & Willcocks, J. (1983). (Eds.), *Moving from the primary classroom*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Galton, M., & Williamson, J. (1992). *Group work in the primary classroom*. London: Routledge.
- Gambell, T. J. (1995). Ethnography as veneration. *The Alberta Journal of Educational Research*. 41 (2), 162-174.
- Gannon, T., & Whalley, A. (1975). *Middle schools*. London: Heinemann Educational.
- Gatewood, T. (1972). What the research says about the junior high versus the middle

- school. *North Central Association Quarterley*, 46, 264- 175.
- Gelenberg, A. M., & Langton, W. E. (1992). Comprehension of illustrated text; Pictures help to build mental models. *Journal of Memory and Knowledge*. 31, 129-151.
- Gellner, E. (1983). *Nations and nationalism*. Oxford, UK:Blackwell.
- George, P. S., & Oldaker, L. L. (1985). *Evidence for the middle school*. Colombus, OH: National Middle School Association.
- George, P. S., & Oldaker, L. L. (1988). A national survey of middle school effectiveness. *Educational Leadership*, 43, (Dec-Jan), 79-85.
- George, P. S., Stevenson, C., Thomason, J., & Beane, J. (1992). *The middle school and beyond*. Virginia, OH: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- George, P., & Shewey, K. (1994). *New evidence for the middle school*. Colombus, OH: National Middle School Association.
- Gere, A., & Abbott, R. (1985). Talking about writing: the language of writing groups. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 19, 362-285.
- Glazer, N., (1974). Ethnicity and the school. *Conventions*, 58, Sept, 55-57.
- Glenberg, A. M., & Langston, W. E. (1992). Comprehension of illustrated text: Pictures help to build mental models. *Journal of Memory and Language*, 31, 129-151.
- Glennester, H. (1991). Quasi-markets and education. *Economic Journal*, V. (101), 1268-1271.
- Goetz, P. J., & LeCompte, M. D. (1984). *Ethnography and qualitative design in educational research*. Orlando: Academic Press Inc.
- Goldstein, B. (1967). *Low income youth in surban areas*. New York: Holt, Rienhart & Winston.
- Goldstein, H. (1987). *Multilevel models in educational research*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Goldstein, R., & Underwood, G. (1981). The influence of pictures on the derivation of meaning from children's reading materials *Journal of Research in Reading*, 4 (1), 6-16.
- Goldstein, J., Freud, A., & Solnit, A. (1973). *Beyond the best interests of the child*. New York: MacMillan Co.
- Gordon, L. (1992). The State, devolution and education reform in New Zealand, *Journal of Educational Policy*, 7 (2), 187-203.

- Gordon, L. (1997). Tomorrow's schools today: School choice and the education quasi-market. In M. Olssen, & K. M. Matthews (Eds.), *Education policy in New Zealand: The 1990s and beyond*. Palmerston North, New Zealand: Dunmore Press.
- Gorsuch, R. L. (1983). *Factor Analysis* (second edition.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Government of New Zealand. (1988). White Paper. *Tomorrow's schools: The reform of educational administration in New Zealand*. Wellington, New Zealand: Government Press.
- Gray, J. (1990). Has comprehensive education succeeded? Changes within schools and their effects in Great Britain. In A. Leschinsky & K.U. Mayer (Eds.), *The comprehensive school experiment revisited: Evidence from Western Europe*. Frankfurt on Main, Verlag: Peter Lang.
- Grebenick, E., & Moser, C. A. (1992). Society: problems and methods of study. In A.T. Welford, M. Argyle, O. Glass & J. N. Harris (Eds.), *Statistical surveys*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Grenier, M. (1978). *Research methods in organisational change*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Griffiths, B.W.,(1992). Adolescent attitudes: a functional interpretation. In P. C. L. Heaven (Ed.), *Life span development*. Marrickville, N.S.W: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich Group: 122-139.
- Groom, M. A. (1989). *Perspectives on the middle school*. Colombus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill.
- Gross, R. E., & Gross, N. (1979). (Eds.), *The dynamics of planned educational change: Case studies and analyses*. Berkley, CA: McCutchen Publishing Corporation.
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln Y. S. (1981). *Effective evaluation*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Gullotta, T. P., (1983) Early adolescence, alienation and education. *Theory Into Practice* 22 (2), 151 - 154.
- Hall G. H., & Hord, B. (1984). Effects of three principal styles on school improvement. *Educational Leadership* ,41 (5), 22-29.
- Hansen, J. H., & Hearn, A. C. (1971). *The middle school program*. Chicago: Rand McNally
- Hansen, J. J. (1999). *Using qualitative computer analysis to inform your literature search when the literature is only vaguely relevant - a case study on the training needs of school governors*. Paper presented at the inaugural conference of the Association for Qualitative Research, Melbourne, 14-17 July. Issued as resource notes at a QSR NUD*IST course, University of Waikato, New Zealand, November, 1999.

- Hargreaves, A., (1986). *Two cultures of schooling: The case of middle schools*. London: Falmer.
- Hargreaves, A. (1994a). *Changing teachers, changing times: Teachers work and culture in the postmodern age*. London: Cassells, New York: Teachers College Press and Toronto: University of Toronto Press.
- Hargreaves, A. (1994b). Restructuring restructuring: Postmodernity and the prospects for educational change. *Journal of Education Policy*, 9 (1), 47- 65.
- Hargreaves, A., & Tickle, L. (Eds.). (1980). *Middle schools: Origins, ideology and practice*. London: Harper and Row.
- Hargreaves, D. H. (1967). *Social relations in a secondary school*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Hargreaves, D. H., & Hopkins, D. (1991). *The empowered school*. London: Cassells.
- Hargreaves, D. H., Hester, S. K., & Mellor F. J. (1975). *Deviance in classrooms*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Hargreaves, L. (1998). *Arriving at the school gates: Developing pictorial stimuli in a research instrument to measure children's projected feelings about transfer to secondary school*. Unpublished paper. University of Leicester.
- Hartupp, W.W. (1993). Adolescents and their friends. *New Directions for Child Development*, 60, 3-19.
- Hearn, J. J. (1971). Teachers' sense of alienation with respect to school system structure. *Phi-Delta Kappan* 52, (5), 312.
- Heaven, P. C. L. (Ed.). (1988). *Life span development*. Marrickville, N.S.W.: Harvard Brace Jovanovich Group.
- Hill, C.J. (1972). *Transfer at eleven*. Windsor, National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales.
- Hill, J. P. (1980). *Understanding early adolescence, a framework*. Chapel Hill, North Carolina: University of North Carolina.
- Hinchco, B. (1997). Middle schools. *Education Today*, 15, July, 11-12.
- Hirsch, P.J., Blyth, D.A., Van Cleave, E.G., & Bush, D.M. (1979). Entry into early adolescence: The impact of school success, puberty and early dating on self-esteem. *American Psychological Review*. 44, 948-967.
- Hirsch, P. J., & Rapkin, B. D. (1987). The transition to junior high school: A longitudinal study of self-esteem, psychological symptomatology, school life and social support. *Child Development*, 58, 1235- 1243.

- Hoffman, J. (1979). Let's keep self-destructive elements out of our middle schools. *Teacher*, 96, 24-25.
- Hough, J. R., (1993). Educational finance issues in North America. *Education Economics*. 1 (1), 35-42.
- Holmes, Sir F. (1977). Lay and professional participation in educational administration in New Zealand. In J. E. Watson (Ed.), *Policies for participation: Trends in educational administration in Australia and New Zealand*. Wellington, New Zealand: NZEAS.
- Holzman, M. (1993). What is systemic change? *Educational Leadership*, 18, July, 23-25.
- Hopkins, D. (1994). *School improvement in an era of change*. London: Cassell.
- House, E. R. (1971). A critique of linear change models in education. *Educational Technology*, 11, Oct, 35- 37.
- House, E. R., (1979). Technology versus craft: A ten year perspective on innovation. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*. 11 (1), 1- 15.
- House, E.R., (1981). Three perspectives on innovation: Technical, political, and cultural. In R. Lehming and M. Kane (Eds.), *Improving Schools: Using what we know*. Beverley Hills; Sage Publications.
- House, E. R., Kerins, T., & Steele, J. M. (1972). A Test of the research and developmental model of change. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 8, (Winter), 17- 19.
- House, E. R., & McQuillan, P. J., (1996). *Three perspectives on school reform*. Unpublished paper, shared with researcher. Boulder: University of Colorado.
- Irmisher, K. (1996, March) . Block scheduling. ERIC Digest [On-line serial], ED393156. http://www.ed.gov/databases/ERIC_Digests/Ed393156.html .
- Jacob, E. (1988). Clarifying qualitative research; A focus in traditions. *Educational Researcher*, 17, 16- 24.
- Jackson, A. W., & Hornbeck, D. W. (1989). Educating young adolescents: Why we must restructure middle school grades. *American Psychologist*, 44, 831-836.
- Johnson, J. H. (1984). A synthesis of research findings on middle level education. In J. H. Lounsbury (Ed.), *Perspectives: Middle school education, 1964- 1984*. (p. 134-156). Columbus, OH: National Middle School Association.
- Johnson, M. (1966). Needs for the sixties. *Bulletin of the Association of Secondary School Principals*, XLVII, (280), 440-446.

- Johnston, J. H. (1984). A synthesis of research findings on middle level education. In J. H. Lounsbury (Ed.), *Perspectives; Middle School Education, 1964- 1984*. (pp. 134-156). Columbus, OH: National Middle School Association.
- Katterns, R. W. (1974). *Microteaching: A year three course*. Hamilton, New Zealand: University of Waikato Teacher Education Research project.
- Katz, M. B. (1975). *Class, bureaucracy and schools: The illusion of educational change in America*. New York: Praeger Publishers.
- Keddie, N. (1971). Classroom knowledge. In M.F.D. Young (Ed.), *Knowledge and Control*, 133- 159. London: Collier MacMillan.
- Kellough, R. D., & Kellough, N. G. (1999). *Middle school teaching: A guide to methods and resources*. Brunswick, NJ: Merrill.
- Kelly, G. A. (1955). *The psychology of personal constructs*. New York: Morton & Co.
- Kelsey, J. (Ed.). (1983). *Two tears growing*. Wellington, New Zealand: Brick Row Publishing.
- Kerlinger, F. N. (1986). *Foundations of behavioural research: Education and psychological Enquiry*. (Third edition). New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winstone.
- Kerr, A. K. (1996). The case for the middle school. *Developmental Network Newsletter*, 3, 14 – 18.
- King, D. (1987). The state and the social structures of welfare. *Theory and society*, 16, 841-868.
- Klein, P. (1976). *Psychological testing. The measurement of intelligence, ability and personality*. London: Malaby Press.
- Kleinmuntz, B. (1967). *Personality measurement: An introduction*. Homewood, IL: The Dorsey Press.
- Kniveton, B. H. (1969). An investigation of the attitudes of adolescents to aspects of their schooling. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 39 (1), 78- 81.
- Kogan, M. (1978). *The politics of educational change*. Fontana: Collins.
- Konopka, J. F. (1980). Stresses and strains in adolescents and young adults. In L.A. Bond & J. C. Rosen (eds.), *Competence and coping in adulthood*. Hanover, NH: University Press of New England.
- Lake, S. (1988). *Instructional practices for middle grade students: Developing self-directed learners*. Practitioners Monograph No. 3. Sacramento, CA: California League of Middle Schools.

- Lange, D. (1988). *Tomorrow's schools. The reform of education administration in New Zealand*. Wellington, New Zealand: Government Printer.
- Lanyon, R. I., & Goodstein, L.D. (1971). *Personality assessment*. (Second Edition). London: John Wiley & Sons.
- Lather, P. (1986). Research as praxis. *Harvard Educational Review*, 56 (3), 257-277.
- Lauder, H. (1994). *The creation of market competition for education in New Zealand: An empirical analysis of a New Zealand secondary school market 1990-1993*, Wellington, New Zealand: Ministry of Education.
- Lauder, H., Hughes, D., & Brown, P. (1991). Tomorrow's economy, tomorrow's education: Educational crisis and economic strategies. In L. Gordon & J. Codd (Eds.), *Education policy and the changing role of the state*. Proceedings of the New Zealand Association for Research in Education seminar on educational policy. Delta Studies in Education, No.1, Massey University, July, 61-80.
- Lawton, D. (1997). What is worth learning? In R. Pring & G. Walford (Eds.), *Affirming the comprehensive ideal*. London: Falmer Press.
- Layder, D. (1993). *New strategies in social research*. Cambridge: Polity.
- Lazarus, R. S., & Launier, R. (1978). Stress-related transactions between person and environment. In L. A. Pervin & M. Lewis (Eds.), *Perspectives in interactional psychology*. New York: Plenum.
- Lee, H., Faulds, G., & Lee, G. (1993). *An unfortunate experiment: Middle schooling or muddled schooling? New Zealand intermediate schools: A contemporary and redundant myth*. Paper presented at NZARE Conference, University of Waikato, December.
- Lee, H., & Lee, G. (1996). Caught between two schools: The New Zealand intermediate school experiment. *Waikato Journal of Education*, 2, 145-176.
- Lee, H., & Lee, G. (1997). Putting the 'Equal' into 'Equal Opportunity': The politics of education in New Zealand district high schools, 1869- 1969. *Waikato Journal of Education*, 3, 181- 210.
- Lee, G., & Lee, H. (2000). The contested middle ground: Middle schools in New Zealand. *Waikato Journal of Education*, 5, 211- 221.
- Lee, V. E., & Burkham, D. T. (1992). Transferring high school: An alternative to dropping out? *American Journal of Education*, 100 (4), 420-453.
- Le Grand, J. (1991). Quasi-markets and social policy, *Economic Journal*, 101, 1256-1267.
- Lehming, R., & Kane, M. (Eds.). (1981). *Improving Schools: Using what we know*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

- Levie, W. H. (1986). Research on pictures: A guide to the literature. In D. M. Willows & H.A. Houghton (Eds.), *The Psychology of Illustration*. New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Lincoln, Y., & Guba, E. (1985). *Naturalistic Enquiry*. Beverley Hills, CA: Sage.
- Lipsitz, J. (1977). *Growing up forgotten: A review of research programmes concerning early adolescence*. Lexington, MA: D.C. Heath.
- Lipsitz, J. (1984) *Successful schools for young adolescents*. New Brunswick: Transaction Books.
- Lipsitz, J., Mizell, H., Jackson, S. W., & Austin, L. M. (1997). Speaking with one voice: A manifesto for middle grades reform. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 78 (7), 11-14.
- Loucks-Horsley, S., & Herget, L. F. (1985). *An action guide to school improvement*. Alexandria, Virginia: ASCD.
- Louis, K. S. (1992). Restructuring and the problem of teachers' work. In A. Lieberman (Ed.), *The changing contexts of teaching. 91st yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*. Chicago: The Society, 138-156.
- Lounsbury, J. H. (1960). How the Junior High School Came to be. *Education Leadership*, 18, 145-147.
- Lounsbury, J. H. (Ed.). (1982). *This We Believe*. Columbus, OH: National Middle School Association.
- Lounsbury, J. H. & Clark, D. C. (1990). *Inside grade eight: From apathy to excitement*. Roston, Vancouver: National Association of Secondary School Principals.
- Mac Iver, D. J., & Epstein, J. L. (1991). Responsive practices in the middle grades: Teacher teams, advisory groups, remedial instruction and school transition programmes. *American Journal of Education*, 99, 587-622.
- Mac Iver D. J., & Epstein J. L. (1993). Middle Grades Research: Not Yet Mature, but No Longer a Child. *The Elementary School Journal*, 93 (5), 519-534.
- McCall, G., & Simmons, J. (1989). *Issues in participant observation*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- McEwin, C. K. (1981). Establishing teacher-advisory programs in middle level schools. *Journal of early Adolescence*, 1 (4), 337-348.
- McEwin, C. K., (1983). Schools for Early Adolescents. *Theory Into Practice*, 22, (2), 119 - 124.
- McGee, C.F. (1987). *Crossing the Divide: The transition from primary to secondary school in New Zealand*. Wellington, New Zealand: Ministry of Education.

- McKenzie, G., Lee, G., & Lee, H. (1990). The Transformation of the New Zealand Technical High School. *Delta Research Monograph, 10*.
- MacKinnon, J. D., & Brown, M. E. (1994). Inclusion in secondary schools: An analysis of school structure based on teacher' images of change. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 30* (2), 126- 152.
- McLaren, I. A. (1974). *Education in a small democracy: New Zealand*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- McMillan, J. H., & Schumaker, S. (1993). *Research in education: A conceptual introduction*. New York: Harper Collins.
- McPhee, R. D., & Phillip, K. (1985). *Organizational communication; Traditional themes and new directions*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- McQuillan, P., Kraft, R., Timmons, M., O'Connor, A., Marion, S., & Michalec, P. (1984). *An assessment of outward bound USA's Urban Education Initiative*. Final evaluation report. Boulder, CO: School of Education, University of Colorado.
- Malinowski, B. (1961). *The argonauts of the Western Pacific*. London: Routledge (originally, 1922).
- Manning, M. L., & Allen, M. G. (1987). Social development in early adolescence: Implications for middle school educators. *Childhood Education, 63* (3), 172-176.
- Marris, P. (1986). *Loss and change*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Martin, T. (1993). "Turning Points" revisited: How effective middle-grades schools address developmental needs of young adolescent students. *Journal of Health Education, November/December Supplement*, 24-26.
- Marshall, C. (1985). Appropriate criteria for trustworthiness and goodness for qualitative research on educational organisations. *Quality and Quantity, 19*, 353-373.
- Marshall, C., & Rossman, G.B. (1989). *Designing qualitative research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Maryland Task Force on the Middle Learning Years. (1990) *What matters in the middle grades?* Baltimore, Maryland State Department of Education.
- May, T. (1993). *Social research: Issues, methods and processes*. PA: Open University Press.
- Measor, L., & Woods, P. (1984a). *Changing schools: Pupils' perspectives on transfer to a comprehensive*. Milton Keynes, PA: Oxford University Press.
- Measor, L., & Woods, P. (1984b). *Coping with transfer: Pupil perceptions of the*

- passage from middle to upper school. In S.J. Ball (Ed.), *Comprehensive schooling: A reader*. London: Falmer.
- Meier, D. (1995). *The power of their ideas*. Boston: Beacon Press.
- Merenbloom, E. Y. (1988). *Developing effectiveness in schools through faculty participation*. Columbus, OH: National Middle Schools Association.
- Mergendoller, J. R. (1993). Introduction: The role of research in the reform of middle grades education. *The Elementary School Journal*, 93 (5), 443- 446.
- Merriam, S. B. (1988). *Case study research in education. A qualitative approach*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Meyenn, R. J. (1980). School girls' peer groups. In P. Woods (Ed.), *Pupils strategies: Exploration in the sociology of the school*. London: Croon Helm.
- Meyenn, R. J., & Tickle, L. (1980). The transition model of middle schools: Two case studies. In A. Hargreaves & L. Tickle (Eds.), *Middle Schools: Origins, Ideology and Practice*. London: Harper and Rowe.
- Middleton, S. (1996). Doing qualitative educational research in the mid-1990s: Issues, contexts and practicalities. *Waikato Journal of Education*. 2, 4-23.
- Midgley, C., & Edelin, K. C. (1998). Middle school reform and early adolescent well-being: The good news and the bad. *Educational Psychologist*, 33 (4), 195-206.
- Miles, M. B. (1967). Planned change and organisational health. *Change Processes in the Public Schools*. Eugene, OR: Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration.
- Miles, M. B. (1981). Mapping the common properties of schools. In R. Lehming & M. Kane (Eds.), *Improving schools: Using what we know*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1984). Drawing valid meaning from qualitative data: Toward a shared craft. *Educational Researcher*, 13 (5), 20-30.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: A sourcebook of new methods*. (second edition) Beverley Hills, CA: Sage.
- Milner F., (1921). Report on the junior high school movement in the United States of America A. to J., E-11.
- Ministry of Education. (1993). *The New Zealand Curriculum Framework*. Wellington, New Zealand: Ministry of Education.
- Ministry of Education. (1994). *Education for the 21st Century*. Wellington, New Zealand: Ministry of Education.
- Mitchell, J. (1989). *Who is different? Students' perceptions of differences among their*

- peers*. A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Education, University of Waikato.
- Mitchell, J. (1990). *Who is Different?* Paper presented at the 12th National Conference of the New Zealand Association for Research in Education, Auckland, December.
- Mitman A. L., & Lambert V. (1993). Implementing instructional reform at the middle grades: Case studies of seventeen California schools. *The Elementary School Journal*, 93, 495- 518.
- Morgan, C. D., & Murray, H. A. (1935). A method for investigating fantasies. *Neurological Psychiatry*, 34, 289- 306.
- Mortimore, P., Sammons, P., Stoll, L., Lewis D., & Ecob, R. (1988). *School matters: The junior years*. London, Open Books.
- Moss, L. (1989). American influences on New Zealand education, 1840- 1945. In D. Philips, G. Leland, & G. McDonald (Eds.), *The impact of American ideas on New Zealand's education policy, practice and thinking*. Wellington, New Zealand: NZCER.
- Muncey, D., & McQuillan, P. (1996). *Reform and resistance in schools and classrooms: An ethnographic look at the coalition of essential schools*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Muth, K. D., & Alvermann, D. E. (1999). *Teaching and learning in the middle grades*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Nash, R. (1973). *Classrooms observed: The teacher's perception and the pupil's performance* London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Nash, R. (1989). Tomorrow's Schools: State power and parent participation. *New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies*, 24 (2), 113- 128.
- National Center for Education Statistics. (1995). *Digest of education statistics*. Washington, DC: US Government Printing office.
- National Middle Schools Association. (1992). *This we believe*. (Second edition). Columbus, OH: NMSA.
- National Middle Schools Association (NMSA). (1995) *This we believe. Developmentally responsive middle level schools*. Columbus, OH: NMSA.
- National Middle Schools Association (NMSA). (2000). *Work in progress*. Position Paper of the National Middle School Association. Columbus, OH: NMSA.
- National Union of Teachers. (1949). *Transfer from primary to secondary schools* London: Evans Brothers.
- Newton, D. P. (1992). Pictures in books for children at Key Stage 1: an analysis.

- Educational Studies*, 18 (2), 253-265.
- Newton, D.P. (1994). Pictorial support for discourse comprehension. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 64 (2), 221-252.
- New Zealand Department of Education. (1922). *New Zealand Education Gazette Government Printer: Wellington. 4 September.*
- New Zealand Education Review Office. (1994). *Form 1 to 4: Issues for students.* National Education Evaluation reports, No. 5. Wellington, New Zealand.
- New Zealand Intermediate School Principals Association. (1984). *The intermediate school in New Zealand: The case for.* Wellington, New Zealand.
- Nisbet, J. D., & Entwistle N. J. (1966). *Age of transfer to secondary education.* London, University of London Press.
- Nisbet, J. D., & Entwistle, N. (Eds.). (1969). *The transition to secondary education.* London: University of London Press.
- Nolan, P., Brown, M., Stewart, D., & Beane, J. (2000). Middle schools for New Zealand: A direction for the future. *Median*, 6, November, 4-5.
- Nolan, P., & McKinnon, D. H. (1991). A case study of curriculum innovation in New Zealand: The Freyberg Integrated Studies Project. *Curriculum Perspectives*, 11 (4), 1-10.
- Nolan, P., Openshaw, R., McKinnon, D., & Soler, J. (1992). In G. McCulloch (Ed.), *The school curriculum in New Zealand. history, theory, policy and practice.* Palmerston North, New Zealand: Dunmore Press.
- Nolan, P., & Stewart, D. (1992). *The middle school: Essential education for emerging adolescents.* Palmerston North, New Zealand: ERDC Press.
- Norris, E., Mokhtari K., & Reichard C. (1998). Childrens use of drawing as a pre-writing strategy. *Journal of Research in Reading*, 21 (1), 69-74.
- Norwood Report. (1943). *Curriculum and examinations in the secondary school.* London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office.
- Nunnally, J.C. (1970). *Introduction to Psychological measurement.* New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Oakes J. et al. (1993) Creating middle schools: Technical, normative, and political considerations *The Elementary School Journal* 93 (5), 461- 480.
- Oldaker, L.L. (1986). A national survey of middle school effectiveness. *Educational Leadership*, 43 (4), 79 –85.
- Olesen, V. (1994). Feminisms and Models of Qualitative Research. In N. K. Denzin, &

- Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Olssen, M. & Matthews, K. M., (Eds.). (1997) *Education policy in New Zealand: The 1990s and beyond*. Palmerston North, New Zealand: Dunmore Press.
- O'Neil, J. (1993). Turning the system on its head. *Educational Leadership*, 51:1, 8-11.
- Openshaw, R. (1980). Lilliput under fire: New Zealand society and its schools during the "Red Scare"; 1919- 1922. *History of Education Quarterly*, Winter, 403- 442.
- Openshaw, R., Lee, G., & Lee, H., (1993). *Challenging the myths.Rethinking New Zealand's educational history*. Palmerston North, New Zealand: Dunmore.
- Osgood, C.E., Succi, G. J., & Tannenbaum, P. H. (1957). *The measurement of meaning*. Urbana IL: University of Illinois Press.
- Owen, R. E. (1962). *Report of the commission on education in New Zealand*. Wellington, New Zealand: Government Printer.
- Parsons, T., (1955). The school class as a social system: some of its functions in society. *Harvard Education Review*, 29, 297-318.
- Partridge, J. (1966). *Middle School*. London: Victor Gollancz
- Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. (Second edition). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Paulston, R. G. (1976). *Conflicting theories of social and educational change: A typological review*. Pittsburg: University of Pittsburg Center for International Studies.
- Petersen, A. C., & Epstein, J. L. (1991). Development and education across adolescence: An introduction. *American Journal of Education*, 99, 373-378.
- Phillips, B. N., Martin, R. P., & Meyers, J. (1972). Intervention in relation to anxiety at school. In C.D. Schieldberger (Ed.), *Anxiety: Current trends in theory and research*. (Vol. 2), New York: Academic Press.
- Philips, D., Lealand, G., & McDonald, G., (Eds.). (1989). *The impact of American ideas on New Zealand's educational policy, practice and thinking*. New Zealand-United States Educational Foundation. Wellington, New Zealand: New Zealand Council for Educational Research
- Piaget, J. (1952). *The origins of intelligence in children*. New York: National Universities Press.
- Piaget, J. (1968). *The child's conception of the world* . New Jersey: Littlefield, Adams and Co. (originally 1929).

- Piaget, J. (1970). Piaget's Theory. In P.H. Mussen (Ed.), *Manual of Child Psychology*. (3rd. ed., Vol. 1). New York: Wiley.
- Piaget, J. (1971). The theory of stages in cognitive development. In D.R. Green, M. P. Ford, & G. B. Flamer (Eds.), *Measurement and Piaget*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Platt, J. N. (1988). What Can Case Studies Do? In R. G. Burgess (Ed.), *Studies in Qualitative Methodology*. Vol 1. Greenwich, Connecticut: JAI Press. p.1-24.
- Plowden Report, (1967). *Children and their primary schools*. (2 vols). Report of the Central Advisory Council for Education in England. London: HMSO.
- Pollard, A. (1984). *The social world of the primary school*. London: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Power, C. N., & Cotterell, J. L. (1981). *Changes in students in the transition from primary to secondary School*. ERDC Report, No. 27. Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service.
- Prebble, T., & Stewart, D. (1984). *School development: Strategies for effective management*. Palmerston North, New Zealand: Dunmore Press.
- Pring, R., & Walford, G. (1997). *Affirming the comprehensive ideal*. London: Falmer Press.
- Purkey, S.C., & Smith, M.S. (1983). Effective schools- A review. *Elementary School Journal*. 83 (4), 427-452.
- Reid, M. J. (1992). *School sentiment index, Intermediate level*. Vancouver Board of School Trustees. Vancouver, BC: Department of Planning and Evaluation.
- Renwick W. L., & Ingham L. J. (Eds.). (1974). *Educational Planning in New Zealand*. Wellington, New Zealand: Government Printer.
- Report of a Consultative Committee appointed by the Executive of the National Union of Teachers. (1949). *Transfer from primary to secondary schools*. London: Evans Brothers
- Report of the Commission on Education in New Zealand*. (1962). Wellington, New Zealand: Government Printer.
- Reynolds, D., & Cuttance, P. (1992) *Studying school effectiveness*. East Sussex: Falmer.
- Reynolds, D., Hopkins, D. & Stall, L. (1993). Linking school effectiveness, knowledge and school improvement practice: Towards a synergy. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 4 (1), 37- 58.
- Richards, L. (1991). In K. Beattie (Ed.), *So where's your research profile?* Melbourne: Union of Australian College Academics.

- Richards, L. (1998). *QSR NUD*IST Introductory handbook*. Melbourne: Quantitative Solutions and Research Co.
- Robinson, G. H., & O'Rourke B. T. (Eds.). (1973). *Schools in New Zealand Society*. Sydney: John Wiley and Sons.
- Rogers, R.S. (1994). Q Methodology. In J. A. Smith, R. Harre, & L. K. Langenhove (Eds.), *Rethinking methods in psychology*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Rosenthal, R. & Jacobson, J. (1968). *Pygmalion in the Classroom*. London: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Rossmann, G., Corbett, D., & Firestone, W. (1988). *Change and effectiveness in schools: A cultural perspective*. Philadelphia, PA: Research for Better Schools.
- Rossmann, G. B., & Wilson, B. L. (1985). Numbers and words: Combining quantitative and qualitative methods in single large-scale studies. *Evaluation Review*, 9 (5), 627-643.
- Royer, J., Cicero, C., & Carlo, M. (1993). Techniques and procedures for assessing cognitive skill. *Review of Educational Research*. 63 (2), 201-243.
- Rustin, M. (1989) . *Work and politics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rutter, M. (1979). *Fifteen thousand hours: Secondary schools and their effects on children*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.
- Santrock, J. W. (1981). *Adolescence: An introduction*. Dubuque: Brown & Benchmark.
- Santrock, J. W. (1996). *Child Development*. Dubuque, IA: Brown & Benchmark.
- Sarason, I. G. (1960). Empirical findings and theoretical problems in the use of anxiety scales. *Psychological Bulletin*, 57, 403-415.
- Sarason, I. G. (1980). *Test anxiety: Theory, research, and application*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Sarason, S. B. (1990). *The predictable failure of educational reform*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Scales, P. C. (1991). *A portrait of young adolescents in the 1990s: Implications of promoting healthy growth and development*. Minneapolis, Maine: Search Institute Centre for Early Adolescence.
- Schaffer, H .R. (1996). *Social development*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Schatzman, L., & Strauss, A. (1973). *Field research: Strategies for a natural sociology*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

- Schein, E.H. (1985). *Organizational culture and leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Schlechty, P. C. (1992). *Schools for the 21st century: Leadership imperatives for educational reform*. San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Schon, D. (1971). *Beyond the stable state: Public and private learning in a stable society*. London: Maurice Temple Smith.
- Schools Council. (1972). Working Paper No. 42, *Education in the Middle Years*. London: Evans-Methuen.
- Scott, N. (1977). *A Report of Some Aspects of New Zealand Secondary Schools*. A report presented to the Director of Secondary Education, Wellington.
- Schon, D. (1971). *Beyond the stable state: Public and private learning in a stable society*. London: Maurice Temple Smith Ltd.
- Selleck, R. J. W. (1972). *English primary education and the progressives, 1914- 1939*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Seltzer, V.C. (1989). *The psychological world of the adolescent*. New York: Wiley.
- Sergiovanni, T. J. (1991). *The principalship: A reflective practice perspective*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Sergiovanni, T. J. (2000). *The lifeworld of leadership: Creating culture, community and personal meaning in our schools*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Shuker, R. (1987). *The One Best System?* Palmerston North, New Zealand: Dunmore Press.
- Schumaker, S., & McMillan, J. H. (1993). *Research in education: A conceptual introduction*. (third edition.). New York: Harper Collins College.
- Simkins, T. (1994). Efficiency, effectiveness and the local managaemnt of schools. *Journal of Education Policy*, 9, (1), 15- 33.
- Simkins, T., Ellison, L., & Garrett, V. (Eds.). (1992). *Implementing educational reform: the early lessons*. Harlow: Longman in association with the British Educational Management and Administration Society.
- Simmons, R. G., & Blythe, D.A. (1987). *Moving into adolescence: The impact of pubertal change and school context* . New York: Aldine De Gruyter
- Simmons, R. G., Burgeson, R., Careton-Ford, S., & Blyth, D. A. (1987). The impact of cumulative change in early adolescence. *Child Development*, 58, 1220-1234.
- Simmons, R. G., Blyth, D.A., Van Cleave, E. F. & Bush, D.M. (1979). Entry into early adolescence: The impact of school structure, puberty and early dating on self esteem.

- American Psychological Review*, 44, 948-967.
- Simon, B. (1997). A seismic change: Process and interpretation. In G. Walford & R. Pring (Eds.), *Affirming the comprehensive ideal*. London: Falmer.
- Simon, B., & Wilcocks J. (1981). *Research and Practice in Primary Classrooms*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Skinner, W. A. G. Government Printer. (1932). *The New Zealand Official Year-book*. Wellington, New Zealand: Government Printer.
- Slavin, R. E., Karwent N., & Madden N. (1989). *Effective programs for students at risk*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Smith, L.M. (1988). Broadening the base of Qualitative Case Study Methods in Education. Burgess, R.G. (Ed.), *Studies in Qualitative Methodology*, (Vol 1). Greenwich, Connecticut: JAI Press.
- Smith, L. M., & Dwyer, D. C. (1979). *Federal policy in action: A case study of an urban education project*. Washington, DC: National Institute of Education.
- Smith, J. K., & Heshusius, L. (1986). Closing down the conversation: The end of the quantitative-qualitative debate among educational enquirers, *Education Researcher*, 15 (1), 4-12.
- Smith, M. S., & O'Day, J. (1991). Systemic school reform. In S. Fuhrman, & B. Malen. (Eds.), *The politics of curriculum and testing*. Bristol, UK: Falmer.
- Snook, I. (1990). Contesting the curriculum: The politics of basics and frills. In J. Codd, R. Harker, & R. Nash. (Eds.), *Political issues in New Zealand Education*. Palmerston North: Dunmore Press.
- Snook, I. (1997). Choice and market theory in education. *Unicorn*, 20 (1), 35-42.
- Sparkes, A. (1996). Power, domination and resistance in the process of teacher-initiated innovation. *Research Papers in Education*. 5 (2), 153-178.
- Spelman, B. J. (1979). *Pupils adaptation to secondary school*. Publication No. 18, Northern Ireland Council for Educational research.
- Spradley, J. S. (1979). *The Ethnographic Interview*. NY: Holt, Reinhart and Winstone.
- Stake, R. E. (1978). The Case Study Method in Social Enquiry. *Educational Researcher*, 23, Feb, 5-8.
- Stake, R. E. (1994 a) Case Studies. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Stake, R. E., (1994b) *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

- Steedman, J. (1983). *Examination results in mixed and single sex schools: Findings from the National Child Development Study*. Manchester: Equal Opportunities Commission.
- Steedman, C. (1987). *Prisonhouses*. In M. Lawn & G. Grace (Eds.), *Teachers: The politics and Culture of Work*. London: Falmer.
- Steenma, J. (1987). Longitudinal survey research into progress in secondary schools, based on the National Child Development Study. In G Walford (Ed.), *Doing sociology of education*. London: Falmer Press.
- Stephenson, W. (1935). Technique of factor analysis. *Nature*, 136, 297.
- Stephenson, W. (1953). *The Study of Behaviour: Q-Technique and its methodology*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Stewart D., & Nolan, P. (1992). *The middle school: Essential education for emerging adolescents*. Palmerston North, New Zealand: Massey University.
- Stewart, D., Prebble, T., & Duncan, P. (1997). *The reflective principal*. New York: Richard C. Owen.
- Stevenson, C. (1992). *Teaching ten to fourteen year-olds*. White Plains, New York: Youngman.
- Strachan, J., McGee, C., Oliver, D, Ramsay, P., Ward, R., & Winstone, K. (1995). *Middle schools; A case study*. Hamilton, New Zealand: School of Education, Waikato University.
- Sutch W. B. (1961). *Education for New Zealand's Future*. Wellington, New Zealand: Industries and Commerce.
- Taylor, S. J., & Bogdan, R. (1984). *Introduction to qualitative research methods: The search for meanings*. (Second edition). New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- The Treasury. (1987). *Government management, Vol. II: Education*. Wellington, New Zealand: Government Printer.
- Thomas, A., & Bullock, A. (1992). School size and local funding formulae. *Education Management and Administration*, 20 (1), 30-38.
- Thomas J. W. (1993). Promoting independent learning in the middle grades: The role of instructional support practices *The Elementary School Journal*, 93 (5), 575- 592.
- Thornburg, H. D. (1983) Is early adolescence really a stage of development? *Theory Into Practice*, 22 (2), 79-84.
- Thrupp, M. (1997). School mix and the outcomes of education quasi-markets. In M. Olssen, & K. M. Matthews (Eds.), *Education policy in New Zealand: The 1990s and*

- beyond. Palmerston North, New Zealand: Dunmore Press.
- Thwaites D. W. (1992). "The Middle School in America" A talk, presented to the Wellington Intermediate Principals Association, 14 April. Masterton, New Zealand.
- Tichy, N. M. (1983). *Managing strategic change: Technical, political and cultural dynamics*. New York: Wiley.
- Timmons, M. (1994). *An examination of the Dubuque Expeditionary Learning Schools*. Boulder, CO: School of Education, University of Colorado.
- Tomlinson, S. (1997). A comprehensive curriculum 14-19. In G. Walford & R. Pring (Eds.), *Affirming the comprehensive ideal*. London: Falmer.
- Tompkins, G., & Hoskisson, K. (1991). *Language arts: Content and teaching strategies*. New York: Macmillan.
- Udall, D., & Rugen, L. (1995). *From the Inside out: The expeditionary learning process of teacher change*. Cambridge, MA: Expeditionary Learning, Outward Bound.
- Ulich, R. (1962). *The education of nations. A comparison in historical perspective*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Urdan, T., Midgley, C., & Wood, S. (1995). Special issues in reforming middle level schools. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 5 (1), 9-37.
- Valentine, J. W., Clark, D., Irvin, I., Keefe, E., & Melton, G. (1993). *Leadership in middle level education: Volume 1, A national survey of middle level leaders and schools*. Reston, VA.: National Association of Secondary School principals.
- Valentine, J. W., Clark, D. C., Nickerson, N. C., & Keefe, J. W. (1981). *The middle level principalship: A survey of middle level principals and programmes*. Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.
- Van den Broek, P. (1990). The causal inference maker: towards a process model of inference generation in text comprehension. In D.A. Bulota, G.B. Flores, Darais, & K. Rayner (Eds.), *Comprehension processes in reading*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Van Till, W., Vars, G. F., & Lounsbury, J. H. (1961). *Modern education for the junior high school years*. Indianapolis: Bobbs Merrill.
- Vernon, P. E. (1957). *Secondary school selection*. London: Methuen.
- Vernon, P. E. (1963) *Personality assessment. A critical survey*. London: Methuen.
- Videro, N. (1992). "Uneven Progress" in improving middle schools. *Education Week*, September, 5.

- Wagener, T. (1993). Systemic change: Rethinking the purpose of the school. *Educational Leadership*, 51 (1), 24-29.
- Wallace, G. (1985). Middle schools through the looking glass. In G. Walford (Ed.), *Schooling in turmoil*. London: Croom Helm.
- Walton, R. (1985). Two strategies of social change and their dilemmas. *Journal of Applied Behavioural Science*, 1 (2), 367-379.
- Ward, R. S. (1996). To choose or to fear the middle. *New Zealand Education Review*. Wellington, New Zealand. 1 November.
- Warren, J., & Jahoda, G. (1976). Utilization of pictorial information in classroom learning: A cross-cultural study. *Communication Review*, 24 (3), 295- 315.
- Wasserstein, P. (1995). What middle schoolers say about their schoolwork. *Educational Leadership*. September. 41-43.
- Watkins, D., & Hattie, J. (1981). The learning processes of Australian university students: Investigations of contextual and personal factors. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 51, 384-393.
- Watson, J. E. (1961). *Summary report on intermediate schooling in New Zealand*. Wellington: NZCER.
- Watson J. E. (1964). *Intermediate schooling in New Zealand*. Wellington: NZCER Educational Research Series No. 40.
- Wayson, W., de Voss, G., Kaeser, S., Lasby, T. & Pinnell, G. (1982). *Handbook for developing schools with good discipline*. Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappan.
- Webb, R., & Vulliamy, G. (1996). *Roles and responsibilities in the primary school: Changing demands, changing practices*. Buckingham, UK: Open University Press.
- Weindling, D. (1989). The process of school improvement: Some practical messages from research. *School Organisation*, 9 (1), 53-64.
- Werner, O. (1991). Microcomputers in cultural anthropology: APL programs for qualitative analysis. *BYTE*, 7, 250-280.
- Whitehead, A. N. (1972). *12-16 Early adolescence*. Syracuse: Norton & Co.
- Wigfield, A., & Eccles, J. (1995). Children's competence beliefs, achievement values, and general self esteem: Change across elementary and middle school. *Journal of early adolescence*, 14 (2), 107-138.
- Wiles, J., & Bondi, J. (1993). *The essential middle school*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co.
- Willis, P.E., (1977). *Learning to Labour*, England: Saxon House, Teakfield Ltd.

- Winn, B. (1987). Charts, graphs and diagrams in educational materials. D.M. Willows & H. A. Houghton (Eds.), *The Psychology of Illustration*, Vol. 1. New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Wittenborn, J. R. (1961). Contributions and current status of Q methodology. *Psychological Review*. 58, 132-142.
- Wolf, R.M., (1997). Q-Methodology. In J.P. Keeves (Ed.), *Educational research, methodology, and measurement: An international handbook*. (Second Edition). Cambridge: Pergamon. 417-420.
- Wood, D. K., & Jones, J. P. (1997). When affect informs instruction. *Childhood education*, 15 (2), 292-296.
- Woods, P., (Ed.) (1980). *Pupil strategies: Explorations in the sociology of the school*, London: Croom Helm.
- Yamamoto, K., Thomas E. C., & Karnes, E. A. (1969). School-related attitudes in Middle school age students. *American Educational Research Journal*, 6, (2), 191-206.
- Yin, R. (1984). *Case study research: Design and methods*. Beverley Hills, CA: Sage.
- Yin, R. (1993). *Applications of case study research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Yin, R. (1994). Discovering the future of the case study method in evaluation research. *Evaluation Practice*, 15 (3), 283- 290.
- Yin, R., Quick, S., Bateman, P., Marks, G. (1978). *Changing urban beaurocracies; How new practices become routinized*. Santa Monica, California: Rand.
- Youngman, M. B. & Lunzer, E. A. (1977). *Adjustment to secondary schooling*. School of Education: University of Nottingham.
- Youngman, M. (Ed.). (1986). *Mid-schooling transfer: Problems and proposals*. Windsor: NFER-Nelson.

Appendix 1

THE TERMINOLOGY HISTORICALLY APPLIED TO DIFFERENT CLASSES

Since 1990 the accepted terminology for describing classes has been in Years. Year 0 is first year of schooling, usually for five year-olds. Year 7 and 8; before the adoption of the new terminology referred to as Forms 1 and 2, are the last years of primary schooling. In urban areas this is likely to be accommodated in an intermediate school.

Years 9 and 10 are usually the first years of secondary schooling. Traditionally they were known as Forms 3 and 4. References in the literature to 'Form 1 to 4 schools' or a 'Form 1 to 4 curriculum' are currently termed, 'Years 7 to 10'.

Pre 1990	Current	
Standard 4	Year 6	Primary School
Form 1	Year 7	
Form 2	Year 8	
Form 3	Year 9	Secondary School
Form 4	Year 10	
Form 5	Year 11	
Form 6	Year 10	
Form 5	Year 11	

Appendix 2

THE EDUCATION ACT 1989

1989, No. 80

An Act to reform the administration of education

[29 September 1989]

1. Short Title and commencement---(1) This Act may be cited as the Education Act 1989.

(2) Except as otherwise provided in this Act, this Act comes into force on the 1st day of October 1989.

As to personnel provisions in relation to the Education Service, see Part VIIA (ss. 77A - 77I) of the State Sector Act 1988 (reprinted 1995, R.S. Vol. p. 755), and as to senior appointments, see Part VIIB (77IA-77IF) of that Act (reprinted 1995, R.S. Vol. 33, p.759).

Education Acts 1964-1995 (By Parliamentary Counsel) 009

XII: Establishment of Schools

153 Minister may change class of school

[153. Minister may change class of school---(1) Subject to section 157 of this Act, the Minister may, by notice in the Gazette,---

- (a) Declare a composite school to be a primary, intermediate, or secondary school; or
- (b) Declare a primary, intermediate, or secondary school to be a composite school; or
- (c) Declare an intermediate school to be a primary or secondary school; or
- (d) Declare a primary or secondary school to be an intermediate school.

(2) Nothing in subsection (1) of this section applies to an integrated school.

(3) A notice under subsection (1) of this section, shall specify a day (not earlier than the end of the term after the term during which the notice is published) on which it is to take effect; and the school shall become a school of the class concerned, and cease to be a school of the class it was, on the day specified.

(4) Subject to sections 102 (7) and 104 of this Act, where an existing state school becomes a school of a different class, its Board shall continue in office as constituted until the day before the day on which its annual meeting is next required by section 100 of this Act to be held.

R.S. Vol 34. Education Act 1989, p27.

p137

EXPLANATION OF EDUCATION DEVELOPMENT INITIATIVES



Education Development Initiative

Foreword

The Education Development Initiative (EDI) is a policy which aims to improve the education of school students by making better use of our existing school resources. EDI challenges local school communities to look at and, where necessary, recommend reorganisation of schooling in their area.

We all want to create better educational opportunities for our children and young people. The best way to do this is to encourage those most directly involved - the boards of trustees, parents, teachers, and principals - to work with the Ministry to look at how educational resources are used and to develop proposals for improvement.

The Ministry of Education will work with school communities and will facilitate any changes. We will provide demographic, educational, and financial profiles of schools and an outline of current and future curricula.

We want to encourage parents to contribute on matters they consider important for the future education of their children.

We want to encourage parents, teachers, and principals to look critically at how the education resources in their area are being used. Co-operation and sharing of resources in new and innovative ways could enhance the educational opportunities for your children.

The Education Development Initiative provides a way to let this happen.

Howard Fancy

Secretary for Education

SCHOOLS IN NEW ZEALAND THAT ACCOMMODATE YEAR 7 TO 10 PUPILS

Extract from Education Review Office (1994) Forms 1 to 4: Issues for students, p3-4.

Schools Providing for Form 1 to 4 Students

A wide variety of types of school caters for students between the ages of 11 and 15. There are students in Form 1 to 4 in full primary schools, secondary schools, intermediate schools, Forms 1 to 7 schools and area or composite schools.

Full primary schools cater for students from 5 year old new entrants to Form 2 students.

Intermediate schools cater for Form 1 and 2 students only. These students usually come from local primary (contributing) schools.

Secondary schools typically cater for students from Form 3 to Form 7. Some also have Form 1 and 2 students.

Area and composite schools cater for students from 5 years old to Form 7 level.

It is interesting to note that integrated Catholic schools include Form 1 and 2 students in secondary schools and that most privately owned schools provide for a wider

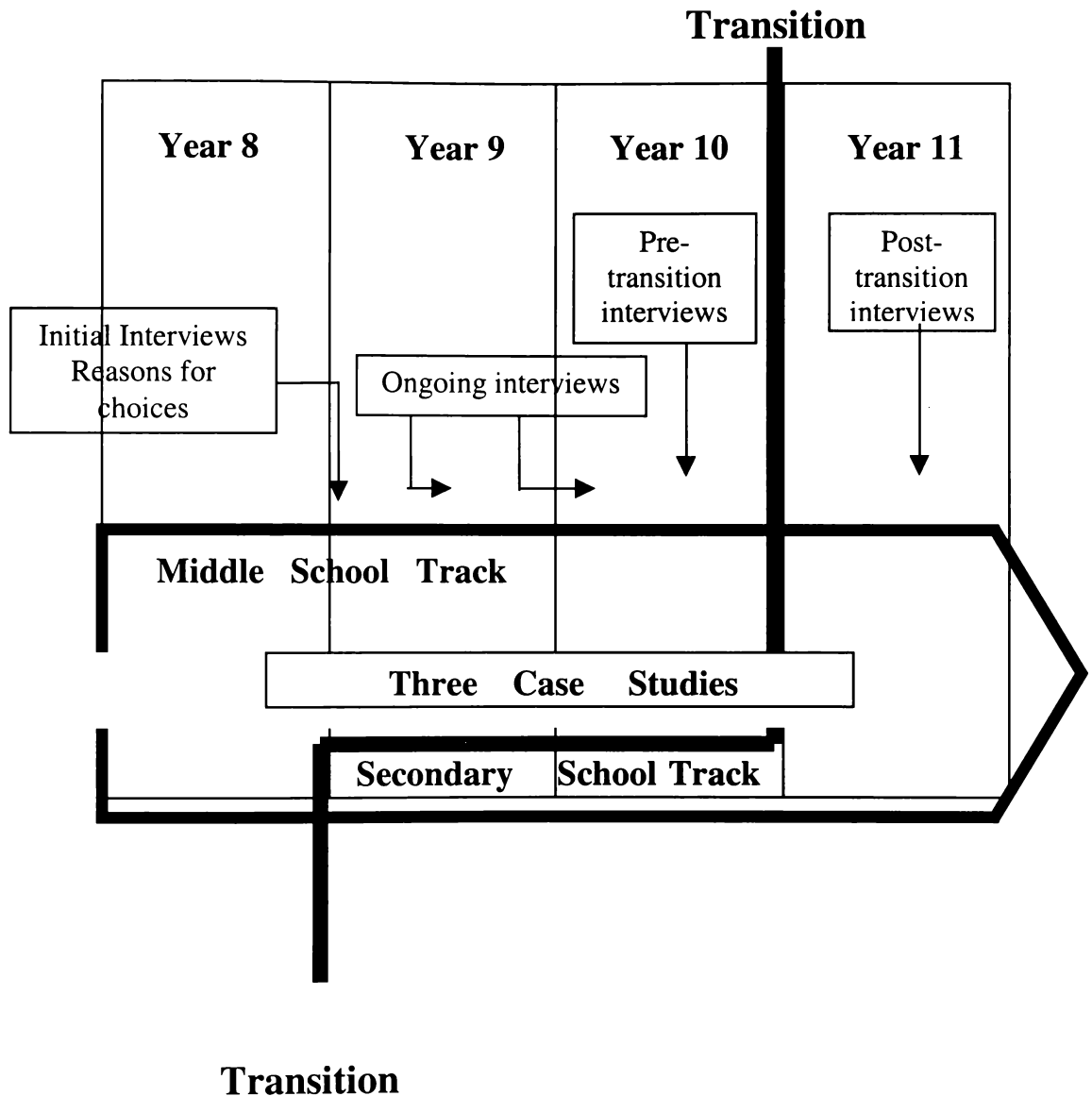
age range than the majority of state schools.

In larger urban areas activity centres cater for a small number of Form 3 and 4 students considered at risk of disrupting other students. Students usually remain at the centre until they are of age to leave school.

Small rural schools near urban areas often have students from nearby towns. Rural children also pass local small schools to attend larger schools in town. Families in rural areas sometimes send their teenagers to board at larger schools rather than having them continue at an area school with a small secondary department.

The choice of types of schooling for students in Form 1 to 4 is wide. Decisions families make are based on their own needs and preferences.

SCHEDULE OF INTERVIEWS WITH PUPILS



Appendix 6

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR PUPILS

Interview questions to Year 9 pupils, near the start of the school year, concerning the culture of the Middle School.

Why did you choose to stay at the Middle School?
Who made the decision to come (stay) here?
Is it working out as you expected it to?
What do you see as the advantages of being here?
Explain how you think your schooling is going?
What are the best features of your learning in the classroom?
Are there any frustrations?
How are you getting along socially?
How do you think life is different at the middle school than that at a secondary school?
What are your ambitions for the year?

Interview questions to Year 9 pupils later in the school year

How is your schoolwork going? What are you achieving well in?
Are you enjoying the options programme?
Are you enjoying the technicraft programme?
What are the best features of your schooling?
Are there any frustrations?
What are your best achievements during the year?
How are you getting on socially?
How do you think your schooling is different to what you might experience at a secondary school?
Do the teachers behave any differently?
What do your parents think of your progress?

Questions to Year 9 and 10 pupils who joined the Middle School from secondary schools, soon after enrolling:

Why have you chosen to come to this school?
Who made the decision?
What do you expect to be different?

Questions to Year 9 and 10 pupils who joined the Middle School throughout the year

Have the reasons for your coming here worked out?
What differences are there with what you experienced at the secondary school?
What do you see as being the best features of the school?

Questions for Year 10 pupils, prior to transfer

Which secondary school have you chosen to attend?

Have you any brothers or sisters there?

What is going to be different about going to secondary school?

Do you think you're adequately prepared for going to secondary school?

What do you think is going to happen when you first get there?

How will you get along with others?

Will the schoolwork be any different?

What do you expect the teachers will be like?

What do you see as your challenges at secondary school?

What will be the best parts?

How do your parents think you'll cope?

Questions for Year 11 pupils concerning transition

How have you settled in?

Was it as expected?

Have you made friends? Who with?

How is the schoolwork going?

What is similar and different about the curriculum content?

Were you adequately prepared for secondary at the Middle School?

How are the teachers?

Questions for Year 11 pupils after settling at their secondary schools:

How are things going at school?

Do you feel that you've settled at this school?

Have you made new friends?

How is your schoolwork going?

What are you doing best at?

What are the challenges?

How are the teachers?

Were you adequately prepared for this school?

Were you to have your time over again, would you choose the Middle School option?

What advice would you give to your friends or younger brothers and sisters about going to the Middle School?

QUESTIONS FOR THE MIDDLE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

Questions for the school principal, during initial establishment

- Is the school developing as you envisaged?
- What are the major challenges in extending the school?
- What are the particular challenges associated with being 'fiscally neutral'?
- What are the criteria for the selection of the Year 9 (and later, Year 10) teachers?
- What are your expectations for the Year 9 (and later, Year 10) pupils?

Ongoing questions for the principal

- How is the school developing?
- What particular issues are you facing at the moment?
- Is the formal culture of the school changing?
- What is your opinion on the development of the Year 9 (and later, Year 10) classes?
- How are the other teachers affected?
- What is pleasing you most about the way in which the school is developing?
- How are parents responding to the developments?
- What feedback have you received from the Board of Trustees?

Questions for the principal concerning pre-transfer

- What challenges do you see the Year 10s having to face?
- How do you think they'll cope?
- How do you think the secondary schools will accommodate these pupils?
- Do you think the Middle School preparation has been adequate?

Questions for the school principal after transition

- Have you heard from the Year 10 pupils?
- What feedback have you received from secondary teachers?
- What liaison do you have with them?
- Have the Middle School teachers received any feedback?
- Have you heard from parents?
- How successful is the middle school concept?
- How do you see the future for middle schools?
- What changes do you envisage being made to the Middle School culture?

Appendix 8

QUESTIONS FOR YEAR 9 AND 10 TEACHERS AT THE MIDDLE SCHOOL

Questions to Teachers of Year 9 and 10 classes, near the start of the year.

Why did you choose to teach at this level?
How would you describe your classroom environment?
Is the organisation for the two Year 9 and 10 classes working as you envisaged?
Is there adequate communication between teachers about organisation and administrative matters?
What influences your teaching and organisation?
Can you describe what you regard as effective curriculum delivery?
How are resources organised?
Are they adequate?
Is there equitable access to resources in the school?
In the (integrative, or specialist) timetable working for you?
What professional development have you undertaken as a result of the change?
What particular challenges have you encountered?

Ongoing questions for teachers of Year 9 and 10 classes

How are things working for you?
What organisational changes have you made to the programme?
What changes in your curriculum delivery have you made?
How is the class developing socially?
How is the syndicate developing?
How are the pupils responding to any changes you've made?
How are the pupils responding to the options programme?

Questions to Year 10 teachers concerning pre-transfer

What challenges do you see the Year 10s having to face?
How do you think they'll cope?
How do you think the secondary schools will accommodate these pupils?

QUESTIONS FOR YEAR 7 AND 8 TEACHERS AT THE MIDDLE SCHOOL

Questions to Teachers of Year 7 and 8 classes, near the start of the year

What changes have occurred since the school changed to a middle school?
Which ones have affected you?
Do you support the notion of this being a middle school?
How do you see the school developing?
Do you contribute to the options programme?
Would you ever offer to teach Years 9 or 10 classes?

Ongoing questions for the Year 7 and 8 teachers

How has extending the school affected your teaching?
Do you have any comment about access to resources?
How do you see your previous pupils coping in the upper class(es)?
Do you think the school has changed socially with the additional class(es)?

QUESTIONS FOR PARENTS

Questions for parents of Year 9 pupils, near the start of the year

Why have you chosen to send your child to the Middle School?
Have you other children who have gone to secondary school?
What advantages do you see the Middle School having?
Are there any particular challenges for your child this year?
How do you expect their school life to be different to Year 9 pupils at secondary school?

Ongoing questions for parents

How is your child enjoying the middle school?
How are they achieving academically?
How are they getting along socially?
Is the school offering what you expected?
What do you see as the particular characteristics of the Middle School?
Which of these contrast with what a secondary school might offer?
What aspects of the Middle School would you like to change?

Pre-transfer questions for parents

How does your child feel about going to secondary school?
How do you think they'll cope?

Post-transition questions for parents

Was the Middle School experience worthwhile for you child?
Would you make the same decision, were you to have the chance again?

QSR NUD*IST ANALYSIS: NODES DISTRIBUTION

(1)	/Teachers
(1 1	/Teachers/Change
(1 1 1)	/Teachers/Change/Curriculum
(1 1 1 1)	/Teachers/Change/Curriculum/Issues
(1 1 1 1 2)	/Teachers/Change/Curriculum/Issues/Emergent
(1 1 1 2)	/Teachers/Change/Curriculum/Decision-making
(1 1 1 3)	/Teachers/Change/Curriculum/Specialisation
(1 1 1 4)	/Teachers/Change/Curriculum/Nest
(1 1 2)	/Teachers/Change/Organisation
(1 1 2 1)	/Teachers/Change/Organisation/problems
(1 1 2 1 1)	/Teachers/Change/Organisation/problems/Resources
(1 1 2 1 2)	/Teachers/Change/Organisation/problems/Emergent
(1 1 2 1 2 1)	/Teachers/Change/Organisation/problems/Emergent/Workload
(1 1 2 1 2 2)	/Teachers/Change/Organisation/problems/Emergent/Communication
(1 1 2 2)	/Teachers/Change/Organisation/Usual
(1 1 2 3)	/Teachers/Change/Organisation/Decision-making
(1 1 2 4)	/Teachers/Change/Organisation/Successes
(1 1 2 5)	/Teachers/Change/Organisation/Influenced by secondary (exams)
(1 1 3)	/Teachers/Change/Social
(1 1 3 1)	/Teachers/Change/Social/Pupils
(1 1 3 2)	/Teachers/Change/Social/Problems
(1 1 3 3)	/Teachers/Change/Social/Successes
(1 1 4)	/Teachers/Change/Transition
(1 1 4 1)	/Teachers/Change/Transition/Preprn for
(1 1 5)	/Teachers/Change/Perceived Role
(1 1 6)	/Teachers/Change/Different perspectives to others
(1 2)	/Teachers/No Change
(1 2 1)	/Teachers/No Change/Issues
(1 3)	/Teachers/Pupil Progress
(1 4)	/Teachers/Forecasts
(1 5)	/Teachers/On resources
(1 6)	/Teachers/Conclusions
(2)	/Pupils
(2 2)	/Pupils/Year9
(2 2 1)	/Pupils/Year9/Reasons for staying
(2 2 2)	/Pupils/Year9/Advantages
(2 3)	/Pupils/curriculum
(2 3 2)	/Pupils/curriculum/Delivery
(2 3 2 1)	/Pupils/curriculum/Delivery/specialisation
(2 3 2 2)	/Pupils/curriculum/Delivery/Integration
(2 3 2 2 1)	/Pupils/curriculum/Delivery/Integration/Comp with sec
(2 4)	/Pupils/rResources

(2 4 1) /Pupils/rResources/comparisons
 (2 4 1 1) /Pupils/rResources/comparisons/Secondary
 (2 4 1 1 2) /Pupils/rResources/comparisons/Secondary/Sport
 (2 5) /Pupils/Year10
 (2 5 1) /Pupils/Year10/Pre-transfer
 (2 5 1 1) /Pupils/Year10/Pre-transfer/Expectations
 (2 5 1 2) /Pupils/Year10/Pre-transfer/Advice to others
 (2 5 1 3) /Pupils/Year10/Pre-transfer/MS Disadvantages
 (2 5 1 4) /Pupils/Year10/Pre-transfer/Delay worthwhile?
 (2 5 2) /Pupils/Year10/Organisation
 (2 6) /Pupils/From Secondary
 (2 6 1) /Pupils/From Secondary/Year 9
 (2 6 1 1) /Pupils/From Secondary/Year 9/Comparisons
 (3) /Parents
 (3 1) /Parents/Consultation
 (3 3) /Parents/Choice of MS
 (3 3 1) /Parents/Choice of MS/Comp Secondary
 (3 3 1 1) /Parents/Choice of MS/Comp Secondary/Percep of secondary
 (3 4) /Parents/Middle School
 (3 4 1) /Parents/Middle School/Summary of achievements
 (3 4 1 1) /Parents/Middle School/Summary of achievements/Delay worthwhile?
 (3 4 2) /Parents/Middle School/Resources (adequacy)
 (3 4 3) /Parents/Middle School/Disadvantages
 (3 4 4) /Parents/Middle School/Social aspects
 (3 4 5) /Parents/Middle School/Pre-transition ideas about secondary
 (3 5) /Parents/With chln at both Ms and Sec
 (3 5 1) /Parents/With chln at both Ms and Sec/Comparisons
 (3 6) /Parents/Secondary comments
 (3 6 1) /Parents/Secondary comments/Was the delay worthwhile?
 (4) /Organisation
 (4 1 1) /Organisation/consultation/Teachers
 (4 1 2) /Orgaisation/consultation/Parents
 (5) /Problems
 (5 1) /Problems/Teacher
 (6) /School Culture
 (6 1) /School Culture/Pupils
 (6 1 1) /School Culture/Pupils/Social Groups
 (6 2) /School Culture/Parents
 (7 1) /Case Study/No.1
 (7 1 1 1) /Case Study/No.1/Middle School/Personality
 (7 1 1 2) /Case Study/No.1/Middle School/Scholastic
 (7 1 1 3) /Case Study/No.1/Middle School/Social
 (7 1 1 4) /Case Study/No.1/Middle School/Parent Comment
 (7 1 1 4 1) /Case Study/No.1/Middle School/Parent Comment/Child's progress
 (7 1 1 4 2) /Case Study/No.1/Middle School/Parent Comment/Comment on
 personality
 (7 1 1 4 3) /Case Study/No.1/Middle School/Parent Comment/Pre-trttransition
 forecast
 (7 1 2 1) /Case Study/No.1/At secondary/learning

(7 1 2 2)	/Case Study/No.1/At secondary/Adeqate prepn?
(7 1 2 3)	/Case Study/No.1/At secondary/Social
(7 1 2 4)	/Case Study/No.1/At secondary/Parent comment
(7 2 1)	/Case Study/No.2/Middle School
(7 2 1 1)	/Case Study/No.2/Middle School/Personality
(7 2 1 2)	/Case Study/No.2/Middle School/Scholastic
(7 2 1 3)	/Case Study/No.2/Middle School/Transiton Forecast
(7 2 2 1)	/Case Study/No.2/At secondaryo/Learning and progress
(7 2 2 3)	/Case Study/No.2/At secondaryo/Social
(7 2 2 5)	/Case Study/No.2/At secondaryo/Conclusions
(7 3 1 1)	/Case Study/No.3/Middle School/Personality
(7 3 1 2)	/Case Study/No.3/Middle School/Personality
(7 3 1 3)	/Case Study/No.3/Middle School/Social
(7 3 1 4)	/Case Study/No.3/Middle School/Parent comments
(7 3 2 1)	/Case Study/No.3/At secondary/progress,learning
(7 3 2 3)	/Case Study/No.3/At secondary/Social
(7 3 2 5)	/Case Study/No.3/At secondary/Conclusions
(8)	/Conclusions
(8 1)	/Conclusions/Organisation
(8 2)	/Conclusions/Social
(8 3)	/Conclusions/Curriculum
(8 4)	/Conclusions/Resources
(8 5)	/Conclusions/Expectations
(8 6)	/Conclusions/Communication
(8 7)	/Conclusions/Teacher in change
(8 7 1)	/Conclusions/Teacher in change/Establishing a MS culture
(8 9)	/Conclusions/Problems
(8 10)	/Conclusions/Teacher Training
(8 11)	/Conclusions/Ministry
(8 12)	/Conclusions/Inter=school relations
(8 13)	/Conclusions/Parents
(8 14)	/Conclusions/Time again
(8 15)	/Conclusions/Choice of MS
(8 16)	/Conclusions/Transition and secopndary school
(8 17)	/Conclusions/Secondary
(8 18)	/Conclusions/Principles and values
(9)	/Change Theory
(9 1)	/Change Theory/Decision-making
(10 1)	/Principal/Cientele
(10 2)	/Principal/Curric&orgn
(10 3)	/Principal/Change
(10 4)	/Principal/Perp'n for Secondary
(10 4 1)	/Principal/Perp'n for Secondary/Problems
(10 5)	/Principal/Pupil successes
(11)	/School Organisation
(13 1)	/Year 11/Settling at secondary
(13 2)	/Year 11/Challenges
(13 3)	/Year 11/Comparisons and differences
(13 3 1)	/Year 11/Comparisons and differences/Social

(13 3 2)	/Year 11/Comparisons and differences/Teaching and organisation
(13 4)	/Year 11/Adequate MS prep'n for secondary
(13 5)	/Year 11/Was the delay worthwhile?
(F)	//Free Nodes

INSTRUCTIONS FOR ADMINISTRATION OF Q-SORTS

Q-SORTS

Instructions: On this page there are 4 boxes. On the other page there are twenty four statements. Read these and then in Box 1, put the numbers of the THREE statement which are most like you and in box number 4 put the THREE statements which are least like you. In Boxes 2 and 3 (the intermediate boxes) you may put the other numbers if you wish, but this is not necessary.

MOST LIKE ME

Three statements	(1)
------------------	-----

Four statements	(2)
-----------------	-----

Four statements	(3)
-----------------	-----

LEAST LIKE ME

Three statements	(4)
------------------	-----

Appendix 13

RANDOMISED Q-SORT ITEMS

- 1 My teachers are friendly towards me
- 2 A good deal of school work is just to keep us busy
- 3 Nobody in this school seems to notice me or care what happens to me
- 4 My teachers take into account what I need and what I am interested in
- 5 I think that people like me will never do well at this school no matter how hard we try
- 6 Normally I feel quite relaxed about School
- 7 I look forward to coming to school each day
- 8 I do not really enjoy anything about this School
- 9 I like school better than most kids
- 10 At times I feel lost and alone in this School
- 11 I am making good progress with my work
- 12 I don't seem to belong in any friendship groups
- 13 When exams are due I feel confident I will do well
- 14 At this school I don't have as many friends as I would like
- 15 I'm often afraid I will make a fool of myself in class
- 16 In school I'm often able to work with people I like
- 17 I'm quite satisfied with how my school work is going
- 18 I wish we were free to do things our own way instead of being told
- 19 In this school people like me don't have any luck
- 20 I am accepted and liked by most of the kids in my class
- 21 I'm afraid to tell the teacher when I don't understand the work
- 22 Other kids in my class try to include me in whatever they are doing
- 23 I like my teachers
- 24 I have trouble keeping up with my work

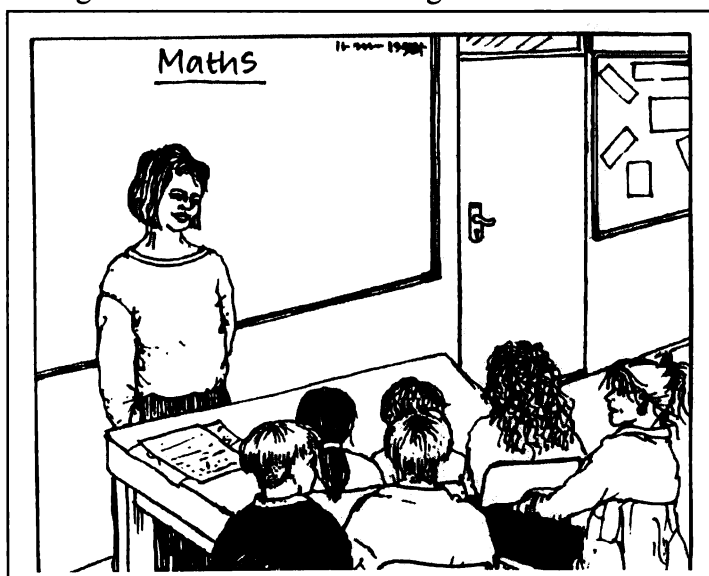
EXAMPLE FROM THE PICTURE INTERPRETATION SURVEY USED IN THE TRANSFER PROJECT, 1995-1997

University of Leicester, School of Education

TRANSFER PROJECT

Name	Date.....
School.....	Class.....
Sex boy girl (please circle)	Yeargroup 4 5 6 7

The people in the picture are doing some **maths**. Imagine who is talking and what they are saying. It might be the **children** or it might be the **teacher**.



Finish the sentences below. **Circle** the **word** which shows who is speaking and then write their words in the spaces.

A **girl** / A **boy** / The **teacher** says,

A **girl** / A **boy** / The **teacher** says,

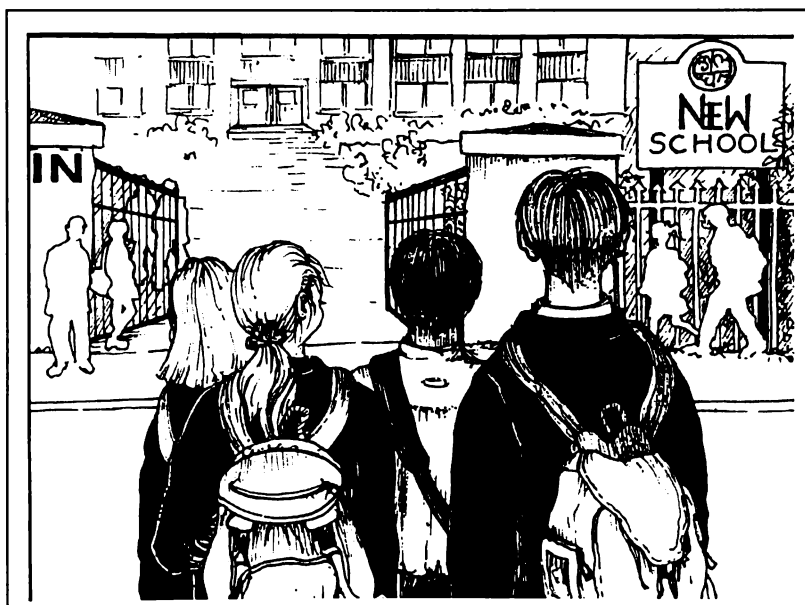
EXAMPLE FROM THE PICTURE INTERPRETATION SURVEY USED IN THE TRANSFER PROJECT, 1995-1997

University of Leicester, School of Education

TRANSFER PROJECT

Name _____	Date _____
Present school _____	Class _____
Sex boy <u>girl</u> (please circle)	Year group 4 5 6

These children are on their way to their new school. It is their first day. What do you think they might be saying? You decide who is speaking.



Finish the sentences below. **Circle** the **word** which shows who is speaking and they write their words in the spaces.

A **girl** / A **boys** says, _____

A **girl** / A **boys** says, _____

MIDDLE SCHOOL SURVEY - PICTURE INTERPRETATION

Here is a picture of a pupil coming to start at this school, this week.



What is s/he thinking or saying?

--

MIDDLE SCHOOL SURVEY - PICTURE INTERPRETATION

Here is a picture of a pupil at the school office.



2. What is the pupil saying or thinking?

MIDDLE SCHOOL SURVEY - PICTURE INTERPRETATION

Here is a picture of a pupil entering a locker room at your school.

1. What is he/she saying or thinking?



2. What are the other pupils saying or thinking?

MIDDLE SCHOOL SURVEY - PICTURE INTERPRETATION

Here is a picture of a teacher talking to two pupils working as a group.

1. Is the teacher (a) talking ☐ or (b) listening ☐ (tick one box)
2. What is the teacher saying or thinking?



3. What are the pupils saying or thinking?

COPY OF SELECTION SHEET OFFERED TO YEAR 9 PUPILS

FORM YEAR 9 OPTIONS 1995

List up to 10 options in preferential order, i.e.

1 = most preferred

10 = least preferred

- Maori
- French
- Japanese
- Economics
- Horticulture
- First Aid
- Pottery
- Keyboarding
- German
- Graphics and Design
- Music
- Art
- Mathematics extension
- Art extension
- French extension
- Maori extension

Aim for S.C.
in Form 4

Others

COPY OF NEWSLETTER TO PARENTS WHOLE SCHOOL OPTIONS PROGRAMME

HAMILTON MIDDLE SCHOOL TE AU-O-TAMATEA

March 12 1996

Dear Parents/Caregivers

The form 3 and 4 options programme is now underway and given the enormous amount of organisation involved the start has been very smooth.

All students now have their full year timetable which hopefully won't need to change.

All the teaching costs are covered by the school through staffing entitlement and many of the material costs are also being picked up by the school.

Some options do have a material cost however particularly where certain materials are essential and are kept by the students participating. As you can see though, for the scope provided by the programme, the costs are very low. We ask that the full year costs be paid a.s.a.p., as materials will not be provided unless fees are paid OR arrangements are in place for payment.

The options and fees (where applicable) are listed below:

Maori	No Charge (N.C.)
French	N.C.
German	N.C.
Japanese	N.C.
Computer Studies	\$10
Computer Keyboarding	N.C.
*Pottery	\$10
First Aid	\$20 (cost of First Aid Manual which students keep) The cost to do this course privately is \$85 per student
Physical Ed. Extension	\$10
Animal Studies	N.C.
Jewellery/Toy Making	\$5
Creative Writing	N.C.
Media Studies	N.C.
Drama	N.C.
Photography	\$10

Leisure Studies	N.C.
Inventors Workshop	N.C.
Self Defence	N.C.
Navigational Skills	N.C.
Drivers Licence	\$20 (cost of Road Code and test sheets)
Carving	N.C.
Work Experience	N.C.
Mathematics Extension	N.C.
English Extension	N.C.
*Clothing/Textiles Exten.	\$10 (already requested)
*Food/Nutrition Exten.	\$20
Study Skills	N.C.
People Studies	N.C.
Speed Reading	N.C.
Animal Studies	N.C.
Environmental Studies	N.C.
Rock Bank	N.C.
Duke of Edinburgh Awards (not determined yet)	
Internet	N.C.
Sport Option	N.C.

* please note - students in these options may need to stay after 3.20 p.m. (until approximately 4 p.m.) to complete the work required.

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS FROM PRE-TRANSFER Q-SORT SURVEY

Q-SORT

Cluster 1 General School Satisfaction

	Seen as being most like me	Seen as being least like me	
Positive behaviours	28	8	13%
Adverse behaviours	5	8	36%

Cluster 2 Personal Confidence

Positive behaviours	8	16	16%
Adverse behaviours	0	32	40%

Cluster 3 Work Satisfaction

Positive behaviours	32	2	9%
Adverse behaviours	7	19	51%

Cluster 4 Social Satisfaction

Positive behaviours	18	2	4%
Adverse behaviours	2	12	30%

Scores expressed as percentages.

N = 19 pupils.

Appendix 19

TRANSFER GROUP

	Gender	Race	Older sibling at Secondary School for Years 9&10	Case study client	Eventual Secondary School
James	M	E			CCS
Jack	M	E	*		BSS
Eddie	M	E	*		CSS
Anthony	M	E			CSS
Jed	M	E			BSS
Weti	M	M			CSS
Shane	M	M	*		CSS
John	M	M			P
Lane	M				CSS
Barry	M	M	*		CCS
Robert	M	E	*		CSS
Matthew	M	E		CS1	CSS
Basil	M	M			CSS
Gary	M	M			CSS
William	M	E	*	CS2	BSS
Vanessa	F	E			GSS
Irene	F	I	*		GSS
Tessa	F	E		CS3	GSS
Erin	F	E			GSS

Other P At the end of year 10, left for a Polytechnic course.

Key

Gender M Male
 F Female

Race E European
 M Maori
 I Indonesian

Eventual Secondary School

BSS Boys Secondary School, Urban
 CCS Co-educational Church School
 CSS Co-educational State Secondary School, Urban
 GSS Girls Secondary School, Urban

Appendix 20

PICTURE INTERPRETATION SURVEY ANALYSIS OF VERBAL MOVES: PRE-TRANSFER

Pre-transfer: Year 10

Foreseen perceptions about:

	Positive	Neutral	Adverse	Percentage
Self		20		17
School Work		1		1
Social Interaction	5	12	14	27
School Organisation (or school in general)	1	16	11	24
Relations with Teachers	3	12	20	31
Raw Score Totals	9	61	45	
Percentages	8	53	39	100

Appendix 21.1

ANALYSIS OF DATA FROM PICTURE INTERPRETATION SURVEY

Pre-transfer Perceptions: Year 10

POSITIVE		Transfer School	Exemplars	Indicators
Attitudes and foreseen challenges held concerning:	Self			
	School Work			
	Social Interaction	3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> other pupils expressed friendship 	nice get to know ask name
		2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> hoping others will express friendship 	join in not bad cool
	School Organisation (or school in general)	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> hoping/expecting school to be enjoyable 	goes well
	Relations with Teachers	3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teaching seen as being helpful, offering to help. 	understand interested
Total		9		

Appendix 21.2

ANALYSIS OF DATA FROM PICTURE INTERPRETATION SURVEY

Pre-transfer Perceptions: Year 10

NEUTRAL		Transfer School	Exemplars	Indicators
Attitudes and Self foreseen challenges held concerning:		20	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Wondering about acceptance by others - how many friends they'll make, what teachers are like	wonder don't know hope who like
	School Work	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Pupils wonder why they hadn't learned something.	wonder
	Social Interaction	10	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Responding to others about the identity of another	who
		2	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Introducing self to others	I'm what
	School Organisation (or school in general)	13	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Asking the location of a place, seeking help	find where
		2	<ul style="list-style-type: none">aware of being part of a school for another year	whereabouts lost
		1	<ul style="list-style-type: none">wondering what the organisation will be like	show me locker space
Relations with Teachers	2	<ul style="list-style-type: none">be aware that they may not get it right, but not nervous about this	oops telling	
	5	<ul style="list-style-type: none">the teacher is an instructor	take in how	
	3	<ul style="list-style-type: none">pupils take opportunities to receive knowledge, acknowledge help, respond to a teacher	understand how come giving information	
	2	<ul style="list-style-type: none">the teacher seeks the attention of the pupils, questions, seeks answers.		
		61		

Appendix 21.3

ANALYSIS OF DATA FROM PICTURE INTERPRETATION SURVEY

Pre-transfer Perceptions: Year 10

ADVERSE		Transfer School	Exemplars	Indicators
Attitudes and Self foreseen challenges held concerning:	School Work			
	Social Interaction	4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> fearful of saying the wrong thing; needing to act calmly 	Calm
		4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> fearful of being bullied, teased 	beaten up
		1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> fearful of what negative comments others may make 	be cool
		4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> making negative comments about others; having an aggressive attitude 	dork
		1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> others making negative comments to a new pupil 	ugly
				dumb
School Organisation (or school in general)		3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> going to the wrong place, being in trouble, generally 	dick
		8	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> adverse feelings about school in general 	smash
				tease
Relations with Teachers		10	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> teachers remonstrating with pupils' being impatient 	wedgie
		2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> pupil defending self from inappropriate/unjust teacher behaviour 	losers
		6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> pupils apply disrespectful labels to teachers 	
		2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> pupils taking a subservient role; trying not to be angry 	
Total		45		

ANALYSIS OF DATA FROM PICTURE INTERPRETATION SURVEY

Post-transfer: Year 11

POSITIVE		No. of verbal moves	Exemplars	Indicators
Attitudes and foreseen challenges held concerning:	Self			
	School Work			
	Social Interaction	2 2	* Giving positive thoughts to self. * Wanting to make new friends.	Chin up Smile Confidence Let's talk Try
	School Organisation (or school in general)	1	* Hoping for a comparatively better school.	Hope Better
	Relations with Teachers	3	* Teacher seen as being helpful, offering to help	Showing Helping Makes it look easy
	Total	8		

Appendix 22.2

ANALYSIS OF DATA FROM PICTURE INTERPRETATION SURVEY

Post-transfer: Year 11

NEUTRAL		No. of verbal moves	Exemplars	Indicators
Perceived attitudes and challenges held concerning:	Self	1	* Mulling over the day's programme	What
	School Work	2 1	* Giving explanations * Comments about quantity of homework	Homework
	Social Interaction	5 4 2 4 4	* attempting to be relaxed * wondering what others will think * recognition by others of a new fact * courteous requests of others * acknowledging that others don't recognise you	Hi please belong be friendly where's stay cool walking past not noticed how's that? he's new never seen before
	School Organisation (or school in general)	3	* questioning where others are * asking directions	What room Where is Supposed to be How to
	Relations with Teachers	3 5 1 2 2	*pupils thinking of what to say * teacher questions pupils or talking * pupil questions teacher on talking * pupil listening * pupil giving reason for behavior	Thinking Explaining Talking Listening Understand
	Total	39		

Appendix 22.3

ANALYSIS OF DATA FROM PICTURE INTERPRETATION SURVEY

Post transfer: Year 11

ADVERSE		No. of verbal moves	Exemplars	Indicators
Current attitudes and challenges held concerning:	Self	3	• pupil can't wait for the day to finish	don't want
		1	• pupil offering threats	can't wait
		1	• pupil seeks alternatives to school	whenfinish waste stay at home
	School Work	1	• worrying about uncompleted school work	
	Social Interaction	2	• making the most of an awkward situation	nobody hate loser weird
		4	• making derogatory labels about others	egg make fun of
		1	• offering threats	don't want
		4	• pupil not being liked by others	bitchy
		5	• fearful of being laughed at/teased	apprehensive sux do 'em teased
	School Organisation (or school in general)	1	• expressions concerning the sheer size of the school	no one will care
		3	• expressing feelings of intimidation	all done runaround confused
		5	• concern at not being in the right place	intimidated don't want waste hard
	Relations with Teachers	3	• pupil concern about being in trouble	scared
		6	• teachers "tell off" pupils	pay attention be quiet
1		• teachers issue abrupt instructions	telling off embarrassed	
1		• teachers reactions to incomplete work	annoyed trouble test homework	
Total		42		

Appendix 23

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF POST-TRANSFER 'SCHOOLWORK SATISFACTION' CATEGORY, Q-SORT

		YEARGR		Raw Total
Count		1.0	2.0	
WORKSTAT	1.0	29	16	45
	2.0	5	10	15
Column Total		34 56.7	26 43.3	60 100

<u>Chi-Square</u>	<u>Value</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>Significance</u>
Pearson	4.43439	1	.03522
Continuity Correction	3.25792	1	.07108
Likelihood Ratio	4.43876	1	0.3513
Mantel-Haenszel	4.36048	1	0.3678

Minimum Expected Frequency - 6.500

ANALYSIS OF Q-SORT DATA FROM POST-TRANSFER SURVEY

		Post-transfer, Year 11	
Cluster 1 General School Satisfaction			
	Seen as being most like me	Seen as being least like me	Percentages in each cluster
Positive behaviours	34	14	35
Adverse behaviours	21	31	65
		→	
Cluster 2 Personal Confidence			
	Seen as being most like me	Seen as being least like me	Percentages in each cluster
Positive behaviours	12	8	36
Adverse behaviours	28	52	64
		→	
Cluster 3 Work Satisfaction			
	Seen as being most like me	Seen as being least like me	Percentages in each cluster
Positive behaviours	37	17	33
Adverse behaviours	17	30	67
		→	
Cluster 4 Social Satisfaction			
	Seen as being most like me	Seen as being least like me	Percentages in each cluster
Positive behaviours	44	0	6
Adverse behaviours	6	50	94
		→	

N=17